

D

209

H4

UC-NRLF



B 4 006 460

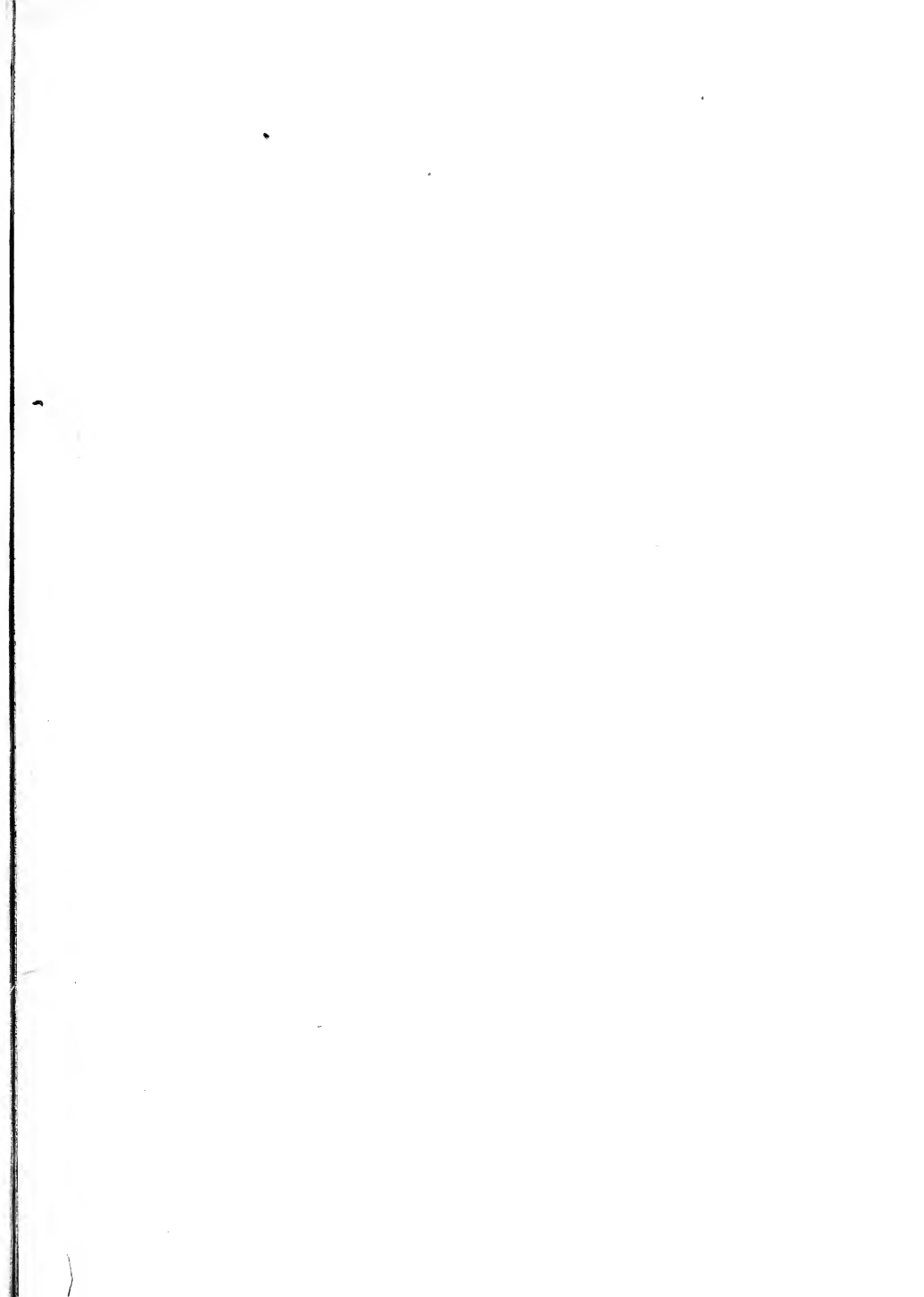
MACMILLAN'S
HISTORICAL
ATLAS ~ ~ ~
OF MODERN
EUROPE ~ ~ ~
EDITED BY ~ ~ ~ ~
F. J. C. HEARNshaw

IN MEMORIAM

Wm. A. Morris 1875-1948



EX LIBRIS







MACMILLAN'S HISTORICAL ATLAS
OF MODERN EUROPE



MACMILLAN AND CO., LIMITED
LONDON • BOMBAY • CALCUTTA • MADRAS
MELBOURNE

THE MACMILLAN COMPANY
NEW YORK • BOSTON • CHICAGO
DALLAS • SAN FRANCISCO

THE MACMILLAN CO. OF CANADA, LTD.
TORONTO

MACMILLAN'S HISTORICAL ATLAS OF MODERN EUROPE

A SELECT SERIES OF MAPS ILLUSTRATIVE OF
THE RECENT HISTORY OF THE CHIEF
EUROPEAN STATES AND THEIR DEPENDENCIES

EDITED BY

F. J. C. HEARNshaw

M.A., LL.D.

PROFESSOR OF HISTORY IN KING'S COLLEGE, UNIVERSITY OF LONDON;

AUTHOR OF "MAIN CURRENTS IN EUROPEAN HISTORY, 1815-1915,"

"EUROPE IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY," ETC., ETC.

MACMILLAN AND CO., LIMITED
ST. MARTIN'S STREET, LONDON

1920

COPYRIGHT

PREFACE

THE events of recent years have shaken the British peoples out of their insularity, and have caused them to turn as never before to the study of international affairs. The rumours of war which alarmed them in 1905, 1908, and 1911, still more the actual conflicts which broke the tranquillity of Europe in 1912, 1913, and 1914, impressed them with a consciousness that there were operating in the world gigantic and elemental forces of which they were ignorant, and filled them with a new desire to know the things that appertained to their peace. Such history as the better educated among them had learned at school had as a rule abruptly ended with the battle of Waterloo and the departure of Napoleon to St. Helena in 1815, and it was clearly evident that most of the acute problems which divided the nations into hostile groups had arisen since that date, and that not a few of them had had their source in that very Vienna Settlement which had followed the fall of the Bonapartist empire. Hence came a demand from thoughtful students of politics for text-books of nineteenth-century history from which they should be able to learn the antecedents of those vexing questions and those conflicting claims which were causing so frightful an upheaval among men. The demand called forth an answering supply, and there is now no lack of trustworthy guides to the intricacies of modern history.

History is, however, intimately bound up with geography. At almost every turn of the narrative the reader, if he desires fully to comprehend what he is perusing, has occasion to refer to an atlas. Although some of the recent text-books are provided with useful sketch-plans, it is felt that there is urgent need of a more complete series of historical maps which may serve as a companion to any or all of the narrative volumes. That series is herewith diffidently presented to the public. Since each map is accompanied by an explanatory introduction, only a few words of general preface seem here to be necessary. First, it will be noted that attention is concentrated on political and ethnographical features. Experience has shown that it is impossible to add physical features to a political or ethnographical map without causing inextricable confusion. Students are, therefore, recommended to have by their side for reference and comparison an atlas in which physical features alone are given. Secondly, it will be seen that most of the maps restrict themselves to showing the transmutations of the century 1815-1914. A few, however, have to go back, for clearness' sake, to an earlier date, *e.g.* Poland to 1772, France to 1598, and Prussia to 1415. One map, viz. the last, makes an attempt to depict the changes in Europe effected by the peace treaties of 1919-20. In some of its details it is necessarily tentative. For, although Western Europe seems to have reached some sort of stability, in the East of the Continent all things continue in a state of flux. No pretence can yet be made to indicate the shape of the cosmos which some day must emerge from the Russian chaos.

HISTORICAL ATLAS OF EUROPE

For the historical portion of the atlas the chief authority has been Hertslet's indispensable *Map of Europe by Treaty*; for the more recent political portion the texts of the peace treaties and the critical summaries provided by the *Geographical Journal* have proved to be exceedingly useful. The drawing of the maps has been in the skilled hands of Mr. J. F. Staton, F.R.G.S., of the firm of Mr. Emery Walker, and if (as is hoped) the atlas is free from grave error the result is to no small degree due to Mr. Staton's wide knowledge and to the patient care with which he has investigated every available source of information.

If in spite of diligent revision some mistakes have escaped correction, I shall be greatly obliged if those who detect them will make them known to me, so that they may if possible be corrected in future editions.

F. J. C. HEARNshaw.

KING'S COLLEGE,
UNIVERSITY OF LONDON,
5th July 1920.

CONTENTS

EUROPE : 1815—1914

PAGE
1

BETWEEN the time of going to press and the date of publication the following points have been settled :—

Plebiscite Areas.

East Prussia.—Allenstein and Marienwerder returned heavy German majorities.

Poland and Czecho-Slovakia.—In the Teschen area rioting prevented a plebiscite. The Ambassadors' Council at Paris fixed the frontier after an agreement had been reached between the Polish and Czecho-Slovak Governments (August 1920).

Austria.—The Klagenfurt area voted in favour of Austria.

An agreement has been reached between **Italy** and **Yugo-Slavia** concerning their frontier question. (Treaty of Rapallo, Nov. 12, 1920.) The whole of the former Austrian counties of Görz and Gradisca, the Lordship of Trieste, nearly the whole of the Marquisate of Istria, and a considerable part of Carniola pass to Italy. **Fiume** is to be an Independent State.

Courland and **Livonia** are now known as the Republic of Latvia (Map XI.).

HISTORICAL ATLAS OF EUROPE

For the historical portion of the atlas the chief authority has been Hertslet's indispensable *Map of Europe by Treaty*; for the more recent political portion the texts of the peace treaties and the critical summaries provided by the *Geographical Journal* have proved to be exceedingly useful. The drawing of the maps has been in the skilled hands of Mr. J. F. Staton, F.R.G.S., of the firm of Mr. Emery Walker, and if (as is hoped) the atlas is free from grave error the result is to no small degree due to Mr. Staton's wide knowledge and to the patient care with which he has investigated every available source of information.

If in spite of diligent revision some mistakes have escaped correction, I shall be greatly obliged if those who detect them will make them known to me, so that they may if possible be corrected in future editions.

F. J. C. HEARNshaw.

KING'S COLLEGE,
UNIVERSITY OF LONDON,
5th July 1920.

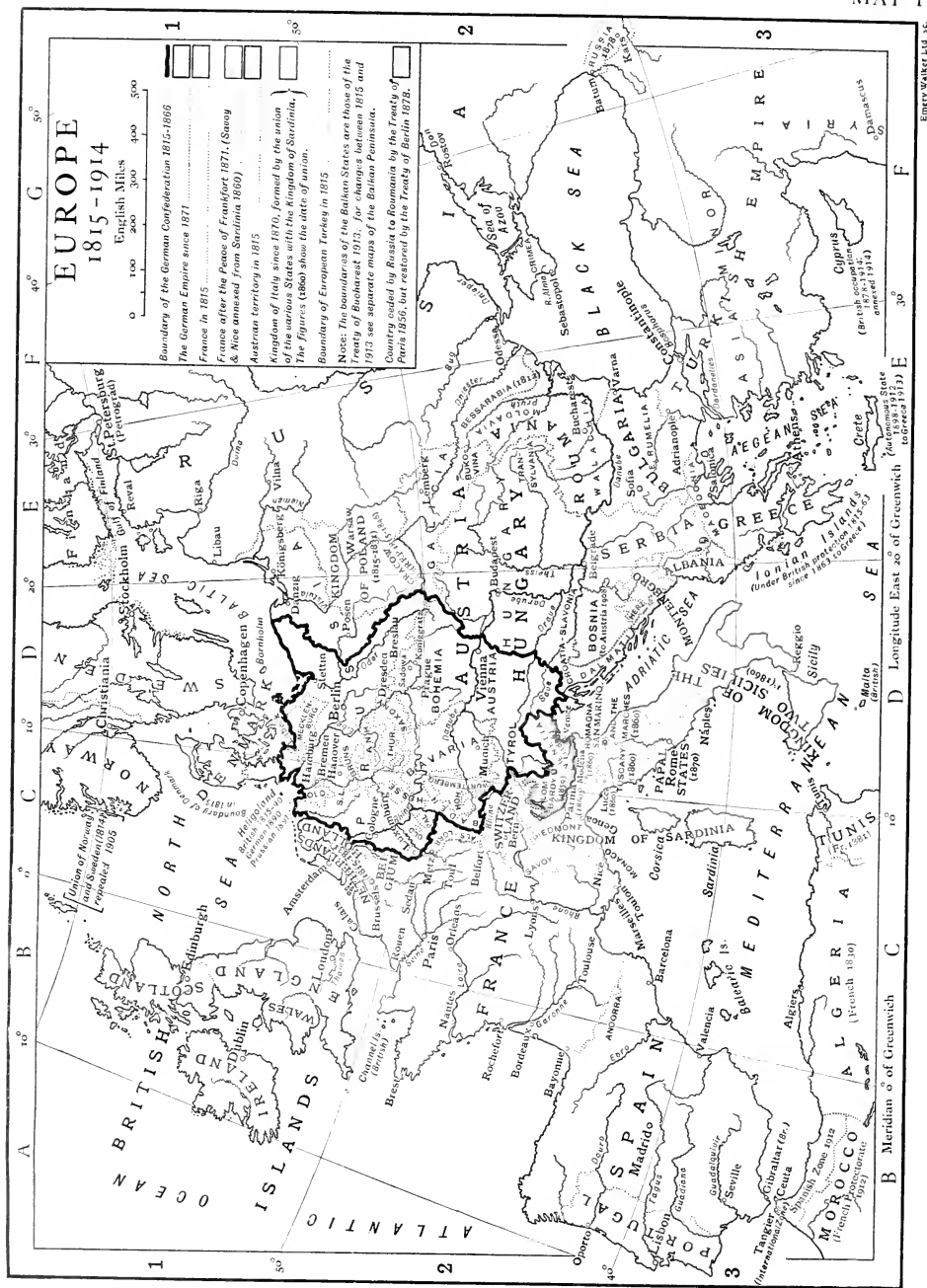
CONTENTS

	PAGE
EUROPE: 1815-1914	1
THE EASTERN FRONTIER OF FRANCE: 1598-1871	3
POLAND: 1772-1914	5
THE GROWTH OF PRUSSIA: 1415-1914	7
GERMANY: 1815-1914	9
THE AUSTRIAN EMPIRE: 1815-1914	11
ITALY: 1815-1914	13
THE BALKAN PENINSULA: 1815-1914	15
AFRICA: 1815-1914	17
ETHNOGRAPHICAL MAP OF CENTRAL EUROPE	19
EUROPE AFTER THE PEACE TREATIES: 1919-20	21
INDEX	25



LIST OF MAPS

	FACE PAGE
1. Europe : 1815-1914	X
2. The Eastern Frontier of France : 1598-1871	2
3. Poland : 1772-1914	4
4. The Growth of Prussia : 1415-1914	6
5. Germany : 1815-1914	8
6. The Austrian Empire : 1815-1914	10
7. Italy : 1815-1914	12
8. The Balkan Peninsula : 1815-1914	14
9. Africa : 1815-1914	16
10. Ethnographical Map of Central Europe	18
11. Europe after the Peace Treaties : 1919-20	20



EUROPE : 1815-1914

THE map of Europe in 1815 was in its most important features determined by the Treaties of Vienna (June) and Paris (November), both concluded that year after long and anxious deliberations on the part of all the leading statesmen of the Continent. The main purpose of these decisive diplomatic instruments was to undo the work of the French Revolution, dissolve the military empire of Napoleon, and restore Europe, so far as was possible, to the condition in which it had found itself in 1789. The Treaty of Paris reduced France to her pre-revolutionary boundaries. The Vienna settlement attempted a general reconstruction of the Continent. Only the broad features of the plan need be indicated here : the detailed treatment of the separate items will more appropriately be given in connection with the subsequent maps of the particular states concerned. First, in order to provide a strong barrier supposed to be necessary to prevent the French from breaking out again : (1) Belgium was joined to Holland under the rule of the Prince of Orange ; (2) the Rhine Provinces of Germany were given to Prussia, which was still further strengthened by the acquisition of parts of Saxony and Poland ; (3) the Swiss Confederation was reorganized and was reinforced by the addition of three new cantons, viz. Valais, Geneva, and Neuchâtel ; (4) Nice and Genoa were placed as Transalpine outposts in the hands of the House of Savoy. Secondly, a new constitution was constructed for Germany. No country had suffered so much at the hands of Napoleon. The Holy Roman Empire, which for a thousand years had given an appearance of unity to the distracted German nation, had been dissipated ; the majority of the 360 petty eighteenth-century German states had been usefully extinguished. Out of their remnants thirty-nine states were reconstituted, and were joined together in a permanent alliance called a Confederation or *Bund*. Thirdly, Poland was repartitioned—although not quite on eighteenth-century lines—between Austria, Prussia, and the Tsar, who was allowed to erect his portion into a constitutional kingdom independent of Russia. Fourthly, Russia was permitted to keep Finland, which she had annexed from Sweden in 1809 ; Sweden in compensation received Norway, which was taken away from Denmark, to whom it had been unwillingly subject since the end of the fourteenth century ; Denmark, by the loss of this tributary kingdom, was punished for her persistent adhesion to the Napoleonic side in the struggles of the preceding fifteen years. Fifthly, Italy, which had attained a virtual unity under French control during the period 1810-15, was split up once more into eight sections, over which Austrian influence was dominant. Finally, the Ionian Islands were placed under British protection. Spain and Portugal were restored to their former rulers, but no territorial adjustments were necessary. South-eastern Europe lay outside the scope of the Treaties of 1815.

The settlement effected at Vienna and Paris was intended to be permanent. No provision was made for any revision, reconsideration, or modification of its terms. A Quadruple Alliance was instituted for the express purpose of keeping the "Treaty-system" inviolate. But the "Treaty-system" had been framed on the lines of legitimacy and precedent, and in complete, if not defiant, disregard of the principles of democratic self-determination and national independence, which had become potent during the revolutionary upheaval of the generation of conflict (1789-1815). Hence the history of the century 1815-1914 was to no small extent the record of the process by which the "Treaty-system" was destroyed, and the arrangements made at Vienna superseded.

The following, in rough chronological order, were the chief territorial changes in Europe during the hundred years in question : (1) Greece revolted from Turkey, 1821, and secured recognition as an independent kingdom in 1831 ; (2) Belgium broke away from Holland in

THE EASTERN FRONTIER OF FRANCE :

1598—1871

THE Empire of Charles the Great at the beginning of the ninth century of the Christian era had included not only the whole of the region now called France and the greater part of that now called Germany, but also all those intervening territories which are at the present day claimed by Holland, Belgium, Luxemburg, and Switzerland. This immense Carolingian dominion was in A.D. 843 divided up among the three grandsons of Charles, one of whom took "France," another of whom took "Germany," while the third received the Middle Kingdom, which included the mixed and debatable borderlands that lay between the comparatively homogeneous Romano-Celtic realm on the west and the comparatively homogeneous Teutonic realm on the east. That Middle Kingdom had a short and stormy career of less than half a century, and the frontier districts which it comprised have been a source of conflict between the French and their neighbours during most of the thousand years that have since elapsed.

It lies beyond our scope to trace the fluctuations of the mediaeval boundaries. Students who wish to pursue this investigation will find useful guidance in the excellent maps of Putzger's *Historischer Schul-Atlas*. Our study of modern changes begins with the Treaty of Vervins, 1598, which, together with the Edict of Nantes of the same date, terminated the French Wars of Religion and established the Bourbons firmly on the French throne. This treaty, concluded between Henry IV. of France and the dying Philip II. of Spain, made no important territorial alterations. It arranged for a general restoration of conquests, a restitution of the *status quo ante*, a stabilisation of pre-existing frontiers.

From that time onward for the next two hundred years the power of the Bourbons tended to increase, while the power of the Habsburgs both in Germany and (till 1700) in Spain tended to decrease. Hence French ambitions were directed towards the acquisition of Habsburg territory, and particularly towards the expansion of France up to the limit of her so-called "natural boundaries" of the Rhine, the Alps, and the Pyrenees—boundaries which it was never forgotten had been the frontiers of Roman Gaul. These ambitions were never fully realised until for a few brief years under Napoleon (1810–13) they were not only realised but far exceeded. Nevertheless, incessant encroachments by all sorts of means—marriage, conquest, legal chicanery, diplomacy, simple grab—led to the transfer of a lot of fragments from the other to the French side of the dividing line. The story is a complex one. The outstanding features are the following: (1) In 1601, as the result of a successful invasion of Savoy, Henry IV. acquired Bresse and Bugey, in return for which he surrendered certain claims that he had to Saluzzo. (2) In 1631 Richelieu, minister of Louis XIII., who had intervened with decisive effect in Italian politics, was able to dictate to Savoy the Peace of Cherasco, which left the fortress of Pinerolo and its approaches (including Exilles) in French hands. (3) The Thirty Years' War in Germany, into which Richelieu had thrust France in 1635, was not over either during the life of the Cardinal himself or the reign of his master. It was left to Mazarin, as minister of Louis XIV., to reap the rewards of French intermeddling when the Peace of Westphalia was concluded in 1648. By this settlement France secured Austrian Alsace, including Breisach, together with the formal recognition of her possession of Metz, Toul, and Verdun (which she had administered and garrisoned since 1552), and of Pinerolo (held since 1631). She also acquired the right to garrison Philippsburg. (4) In 1659 a long war with Spain was brought to a close by the Treaty of the Pyrenees. This gave to France Roussillon and Cerdagne on the Spanish frontier, together with Artois from the Spanish

HISTORICAL ATLAS OF EUROPE

Netherlands, and several border fortresses of which Thionville was the most important. By this treaty also it was arranged that Louis XIV. should marry the eldest daughter of the Spanish king, Philip IV.—a marriage which provided the unscrupulous French monarch with pretexts for predatory raids on Spanish territories during the whole remainder of his long reign. (5) In 1661–62 Louis secured by purchase from Charles II. of England the town and vicinage of Dunkirk, which Cromwell had conquered from Spain four years earlier. (6) In 1667 an invasion of the Spanish Netherlands by powerful French armies seemed likely to result in their complete conquest. This was prevented by the formation of a protective Triple Alliance, consisting of Holland, Sweden, and England. Louis was compelled to evacuate the Low Countries (as well as Franche Comté, which he had also overrun); but by the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, 1668, he was allowed to keep the important border fortresses of Charleroi, Binche, Ath, Douai, Tournai, Oudenarde, Lille, Armentières, Courtrai, Bergues, and Furnes with their districts. (7) In 1678 an unprovoked and unsuccessful attack upon the Dutch was concluded by the Peace of Nijmegen. Spain had become involved in the conflict and most of the territorial changes related to her dominions. On the one hand she recovered Charleroi, Binche, Ath, Oudenarde, Courtrai, and a few other places, but in lieu of them had to surrender Valenciennes, Condé, Maubeuge, Cambrai, Ypres, etc. On the other hand, she was forced to cede to France the large and vitally important province of Franche Comté—the old Free County of Burgundy, part of the vast heritage which the Duchess Mary had conveyed to the Habsburgs by her marriage to Maximilian at the close of the fifteenth century. (8) The period 1678–84 was marked by the establishment of French “Chambres de Réunion,” pseudo-legal bodies, whose decisions gave Louis an excuse for the occupation of Strassburg (1681), Luxemburg (1684), and many other places in Alsace, Lorraine, and the Low Countries. (9) The alarm caused by the aggressive reunion policy of Louis XIV. led to the formation of the League of Augsburg and to the consequent war of 1688–97. By the Treaty of Ryswick, which ended an inconclusive struggle, France, in return for various concessions, agreed (a) to evacuate all towns taken since 1678 except Strassburg and Landau; (b) to withdraw from the right bank of the Rhine, yielding Philippsburg, Freiburg, and Breisach; (c) to restore all Lorraine except Saarlouis; (d) to restore Pinerolo to Savoy. (10) In 1700, on the death of the last of the Spanish Habsburgs, Charles II., Louis XIV. made an attempt to secure the whole of the Spanish monarchy for his grandson, Philip of Anjou. This design was only partially successful, and by the Treaties of Utrecht (1713) and Rastadt (1714) the empire of Charles II. was dismembered. The Spanish Netherlands were transferred to Austria and a slight rectification of frontier was effected. Among the towns which the French were called upon to surrender were Menin, Tournai, Furnes, and Ypres. On the French-Savoy boundary, too, some readjustments were made: the French received Barcelonette and Orange on the Rhone, but they had to surrender Exilles, Fénestrelle, and Château Dauphin. (11) During the seventy-five years which intervened between the Peace of Utrecht and the Revolution the principal acquisitions of the French were the Duchies of Lorraine and Bar (1766), which came to them under the terms of the Treaty of Vienna of 1738, and the island of Corsica, which they took over from Genoa in 1768. (12) The Revolutionary and Napoleonic changes, 1789–1815, were too numerous and too ephemeral for mention here. (13) The Resettlement of 1815 is described in connection with the preceding map of Europe. (14) Between 1815 and 1914 the most important changes of frontier were the acquisitions of Savoy and Nice by France in 1860 (see Map of Italy, No. 7, below), and the loss of Alsace and Lorraine in 1871 (see Map of Germany, No. 5, below).

POLAND, 1772-1914

MAP III

To Prussia

To Russia

To Austria

Boundary of Poland at the Union of Lublin, 1569

Boundary of the Grand Duchy of Warsaw, 1807-1815

1772	1793	1795



National Boundaries in 1914.

Approximate Racial Boundaries in 1914.

Russians	
Poles	
Slavonic:-	
Ruthenes	
Czechs & Slovaks	

Teutonic:-	German	
Latin:-	Roumanian	
Ural-Altaic Stock:-	Magyars	
Letts & Lithuanians:-		

Emery Walker Ltd., Sc.

POLAND : 1772-1914

THE original home of the Slavonic race, to which the Poles belong, is believed to have been the marshy flats of "Black Russia," whose surplus waters the Niemen and the Pripiet in vain endeavour to convey, the one to the Baltic, the other to the Black Sea. Amid the morasses of this inhospitable region grew up on scattered islets numerous communities of stunted folk, laborious, prolific, patient, unwarlike, inured to hardship and familiar with death. They were devoid of political organisation, and even of tribal consciousness; for the unplumbed, rank, estranging swamps kept them apart from one another, and isolated them from the outer world. As population overflowed the narrow limits of this central marshland, it tended to move westward and southward, and this tendency was greatly accelerated by the violent impact from time to time of the nomadic hordes of Huns, Avars, or Tartars, who poured from the Asiatic steppes on the east, and by attacks of Letts and Lithuanians from the north. Before the end of the sixth century of the Christian era the Slavs had reached as far as the Elbe in the one direction, and beyond the Danube in the other.

This wide-spread but incoherent and unco-ordinated Slavonic race was soon split into three main sections. The Magyars, by forcing their way up the Danube and occupying Hungary in the ninth and tenth centuries, cut off the Southern Slavs from the Northern; while the Lithuanians from the Baltic coast pressed southward until in the fourteenth century they actually reached the Black Sea. This Lithuanian thrust divided the Poles and other Western Slavs from the Russians or Eastern Slavs. The results of this latter division were decisive and disastrous. While the Russians received their culture and religion from Byzantium, the Poles were evangelised and civilised by Rome; and while the Russians were moulded into a nation by Viking rulers from Sweden, the Poles passed under the tutelage of the Germans. The differences thus engendered were accentuated by the Tartar incursions of the thirteenth century. For one dreadful year only (1241) Poland was overrun, but Russia actually passed under Tartar domination for two and a half centuries and ceased to count as a factor in Christendom. During this Russian eclipse Poland rose to eminence as the prime Slavonic power. Its capital was Cracow, and the heart of its dominions the modern province of Galicia. In the fourteenth century it produced a series of able native monarchs; but it suffered from two grave sources of weakness, viz. its lack of defensible frontiers and its want of outlets to the ocean. Its approaches to the Black Sea were prevented by hostile Magyars and Tartars; its natural harbours on the Baltic had passed into the German control of Teutonic knights or Hanseatic merchants. In order that it might remove the German obstruction to its easy access to the Baltic, Poland in the fourteenth century (1325) entered into an alliance with the then powerful but still savage and half-pagan kingdom of Lithuania (capital Vilna). This alliance became a personal union in 1386, when the male line of the Polish dynasty died out, and the heiress of the house married Jagello, king of Lithuania. The combination of forces thus effected achieved some remarkable successes over the Germans in the fifteenth century. The Teutonic knights were decisively crushed at Tannenberg in 1410; Samogitia was secured in 1411; West Prussia with Thorn and Danzig in 1466. In 1526 the Duchy of Masovia (the region including Warsaw) lapsed to the Polish crown; in 1561 Courland and Livonia became subject; in 1569 the summit of success was reached when the personal union between Poland and Lithuania was converted into a real union by the Treaty of Lublin (for boundary see map).

The cause which thus welded Poles and Lithuanians into a single State was dread of the new and rising power of the Princes of Muscovy. These princes had succeeded in throwing off the Tartar yoke, and had begun the process of reuniting the Russian peoples under a new

HISTORICAL ATLAS OF EUROPE

despotic monarchy. At the same time, moreover, East Prussia, long loosely held by the decadent Teutonic knights, passed as a secularised duchy into the hands of the ambitious Hohenzollerns. Thus Poland-Lithuania found herself confronted by the two powers which were destined ultimately to compass her undoing. Her own mixed peoples, however, greatly facilitated the disintegrating work of Russia and Prussia by their factiousness, turbulence, and treachery.

In 1572 the Jagellon dynasty died out, and the Polish crown became the prey of contending parties of nobles. Incessant civil commotion left the State a helpless victim to encroaching neighbours. In 1621 Sweden occupied North Livonia; in 1660 East Prussia repudiated the Polish suzerainty; in 1667 Russia compelled the Poles to surrender the immense strip of White Russian and Little Russian territory (annexed by Lithuania in the days of the Tartar troubles) which had Smolensk and Kiev as its chief cities. In 1672 the Turks acquired Southern Podolia.

These frontier nibblings clearly indicated the peril of partition to which Poland finally succumbed. It was the accession of Peter the Great of Russia in 1689, however, which made that peril imminent; for Peter turned the face of Russia definitely toward the West, and inaugurated a policy of European expansion which involved the elimination of Poland from the map. Peter was not himself able to carry through his policy; the task of doing so was left to his unscrupulous successor, Catherine II. (1762-1796). She was not, it is true, in a position to achieve Peter's complete design of annexing Poland-Lithuania as a whole, for Prussia and Austria were so powerful and so jealous that they had to be placated with portions of the prey. The actual proposal for partition, indeed, came in 1763 from Frederick the Great of Prussia, who was eager to secure West Prussia and Ermeland, in order to knit up his Pomeranian and East Prussian territories. Catherine II. agreed to his doing so, provided that she should be allowed to annex South Livonia together with all the old Russian dominions east of the Dvina and Dnieper. Maria Theresa of Austria tearfully protested against the proposed spoliation, but when she found that she could not stop it, she insisted on having Galicia and Lodomeria as a solace to her wounded sensibilities. In 1793, when Austria was involved in war with Revolutionary France, Russia and Prussia effected a second partition; the former taking the bulk of Podlesia, Volhynia, Northern Podolia, and the Ukraine; the latter linking up Silesia with East Prussia by annexing a large part of Great Poland with its appurtenances. This flagrant spoliation excited a vain revolt of the Poles under Kosciusko. Its suppression by Russian and Prussian troops prepared the way for the extinction of Poland by the third partition (1795). Russia took Courland, Samogitia, Lithuania, with the remainder of Podlesia and Volhynia; Austria received Little Poland with Cracow; Prussia had all the rest including Warsaw. Thus Poland as a State came to an end.

Its subsequent history must be briefly indicated. In 1807, after Napoleon's overthrow of Prussia at Jena, and in accordance with the Treaty of Tilsit made with Russia, a Grand Duchy of Warsaw was constituted, dependent on France. It consisted, roughly, of the Prussian and Austrian acquisitions, 1793-95. To these were added Cracow and West Galicia in 1809. During the wars of liberation (1813) this Grand Duchy was overrun and occupied by Russian troops, and at the Vienna Settlement of 1815 (after a furious diplomatic conflict) the bulk of it was assigned to the Tsar, Alexander I., to be ruled as a separate constitutional kingdom. Prussia, however, recovered Posen, with Thorn and Danzig, while Austria regained West Galicia—from which Cracow and its environs were subtracted in order to form a tiny independent republic. The Vienna arrangement was not a permanent one. The Poles rebelled in 1830 and lost their constitution. In 1847 they were fully absorbed into the Russian Empire. During the preceding year (1846) the Austrian Empire had annexed Cracow. The partition and subjugation of Poland was one of the main causes of the insurgence of European nationalism in the nineteenth century.

THE GROWTH OF PRUSSIA : 1415-1914

THE story of the growth of Prussia during the five centuries covered by the accompanying map is largely the history of the Hohenzollern dynasty. In no other country in Europe have politics and personality been so closely associated. Prussia was built up by the ability of its early rulers, as it has been destroyed by the lunacy of its later ones.

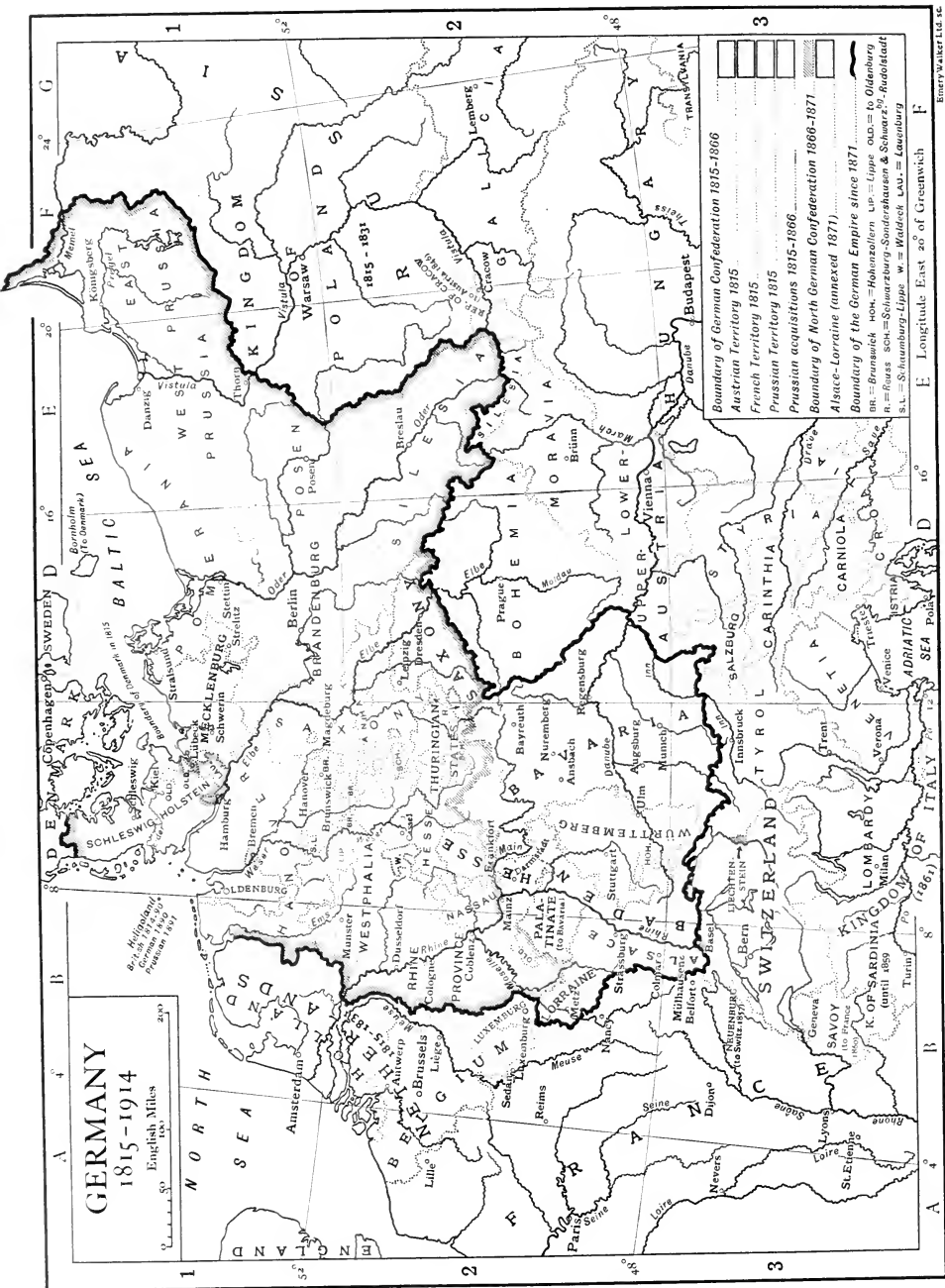
In 1415 Frederick of Hohenzollern, Burgrave of Nuremberg, was by the favour of the Emperor Sigismund placed in possession of the Mark of Brandenburg. Two years later he was formally and solemnly invested with the rank and title of an Elector of the Holy Roman Empire. These imperial concessions implied an increase of dignity, but not an enlargement of joy. The electoral office involved the primitive Hohenzollerns in the responsibility of the administration of an exceedingly ramshackle empire; the removal from Nuremberg to Berlin meant the abandonment of a comfortable little government in a prosperous commercial city for the administration of a desolate frontier province, poor and unprofitable, almost indefensible, and liable to incessant raids by Slavs from the East, Saxons from the South, Scandinavians from the North, and even French from the West. The Mark had originally been created in the tenth century as a defence of the eastern frontier of Germany against the barbarians who dwelt between the Elbe and the Oder. This "Old Mark" had in 1133 passed into the hands of a vigorous line of Margraves known as the Ascanian House, and they before their extinction in 1320 had added to their possessions the "Middle Mark," with its northern appendages of Priegnitz and Uckermark, together with something rather more than a bridgehead across the Oder at Frankfurt. It was this enlarged and already composite margravate that Frederick acquired in 1415. It was a territory without natural frontiers, or homogeneous population, or *raison d'être*. It demanded either expansion or extinction. That it escaped extinction was due to the successful acquisitiveness of a series of Hohenzollern rulers, among whom the Great Elector (1640-88) and Frederick the Great (1740-86) rank first.

To enumerate the pretexts and describe the processes by means of which the Hohenzollern margravate, monarchy, and empire were successively built up would require more space than can here be spared. The student who wishes to pursue this theme must be referred to the excellent volume by Messrs. Marriott and Robertson entitled *The Evolution of Prussia* (Clarendon Press, 1915). The main steps alone can here be mentioned. They were as follows: (1) The New Mark was added by the Elector Frederick II. in 1455. (2) The Elector Albert Achilles, 1470-1486, acquired numerous small tracts, mainly on his frontiers, such as Krossen, just above Frankfurt on the Oder. (3) The Elector John Cicero, 1486-99, secured Zossen, a district not large but valuable as being only some twenty miles south of Berlin. (4) In the sixteenth century the most important additions were Ruppín (1521), which straightened the northern frontier of the Middle Mark, and the secularised bishoprics of Brandenburg, Havelburg, and Lebus (1548). (5) The seventeenth century opened with the immensely significant union of the margravate of Brandenburg with the remote duchy of East Prussia. This duchy had been conquered during the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries from the pagan Wends by the crusading Order of Teutonic Knights. In 1511 the High Mastership of this Order was conferred upon a minor Hohenzollern, Albert of Ansbach. In 1528, the Reformation having broken out in Germany, he sought to make the best of both worlds by becoming Protestant, by marrying, and by appropriating the territory of his Order, agreeing to hold it as a feudal duchy under the king of Poland. The Hohenzollerns of Brandenburg were much interested in these proceedings of their relative. They never rested until they secured the reversion of his heritage. In 1618, the Albertine line having come to an end in the imbecile duke, Albert Frederick, they succeeded to the duchy. (6) Meantime, another important question of inheritance had

HISTORICAL ATLAS OF EUROPE

risen in Western Germany. The Elector, John Sigismund of Brandenburg (1608–19), had claims to the succession in the duchies of Cleves and Jülich. In 1614 a partition was effected, according to which the Elector was to receive Cleves, Mark, and Ravensberg. This settlement, however, was reopened by the Thirty Years' War, and it was not till 1666 that actual occupation of these three territories was obtained. (7) The Thirty Years' War is specially associated with the name of the Great Elector. Before he succeeded to the margravate, Brandenburg suffered severely from the ravages of both the Protestant and the Catholic armies, in the direct track of whose most furious conflicts it unhappily lay. He speedily reorganised his military forces and intervened so effectively on the Protestant side that at the Peace of Westphalia (1648) he received as his reward Eastern Pomerania, together with the secularised bishoprics of Halberstadt, Minden, and Cammin, and the reversion of the archbishopric of Magdeburg, which actually passed into Prussian hands thirty-two years later (1680). In 1656 he freed East Prussia from its dependence on Poland. (8) Frederick, successor to the Great Elector (1688–1713), took part on the Austrian side in the War of the Spanish Succession, from which he emerged with the title of king in Prussia and with the prospect of the addition of Upper Guelderland to his dominions (it was actually ceded 1715). (9) The next Hohenzollern, the soldier-king, Frederick William I., secured from the spoils of the Northern War (1720) a large part of Western Pomerania, including Stettin, Usedom, and Wollin, which gave control of all the navigation of the lower Oder. (10) After the soldier-king came his son, known as Frederick the Great, who began his reign by seizing the Austrian province of Silesia (1740–42). In 1744 he inherited East Friesland, including Emden, and thus became an oceanic potentate. In 1772 he assisted in the first partition of Poland (see the preceding map) and thus secured West Prussia and Ermeland, which linked up his Baltic kingdom with his German Electorate. (11) The second and third partitions of Poland fell in the reign of Frederick William II. (1786–1797). They gave to the Hohenzollern House the immense districts of South Prussia (1793) and New East Prussia (1795). During the same reign, too, Ansbach and Bayreuth fell by inheritance to the Prussian king (1791). (12) The Napoleonic reconstitution of Germany, 1801–1803, deprived Prussia of her territories on the west of the Rhine, but gave her in compensation five times as much on the east side of the river, including the bishoprics of Münster, Hildesheim, and Paderborn.

This steady expansion of Prussia received a rude check as a result of the crushing victory of Napoleon over Frederick William III. at Jena (1806) and the humiliating Treaty of Tilsit (1807). The Prussian monarchy was dismembered and reduced to about one-half its former size. The boundary-line of 1807–15 should be carefully observed on the map. The Congress of Vienna found one of its most difficult tasks to be the reconstitution of Prussia. In the end Prussia had to abandon all her Polish acquisitions under the second and third Partition Treaties except Posen and Thorn; but she received in compensation the rest of Western Pomerania, about one-third of Saxony, and the extensive provinces of Westphalia and the Rhine (including Cologne, Aix-la-Chapelle, Coblenz, and Trier). During the half-century 1815–1865, the only noteworthy accretions were Lichtenberg (1834), Hohenzollern-Hechingen and Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen (1845), and Lauenburg (1865). Then came the Austro-Prussian War of 1866, with its extrusion of the Habsburgs from Germany, its dissolution of the *Bund*, and its reconstruction of North Germany under Prussian leadership. In the midst of this upheaval Prussia was able to annex Schleswig-Holstein, Hanover, Hesse-Cassel, Nassau, and the free city of Frankfurt. Five years later the Franco-Prussian War broke out. Its result was to absorb all the German peoples into the victorious Prussian monarchy, upon which the name "The German Empire" was bestowed (see next map).



GERMANY : 1815-1914

MEDIAEVAL Germany in the eleventh century of the Christian era under the Emperor Henry III. had more nearly attained national unity than any other of the tribal or feudal federations of Western Europe. But the promise of unification was not fulfilled. The successors of Henry III., lured by their illusory pseudo-Roman titles of Caesar and Augustus, neglected their German interests, and wasted their energies on destructive conflicts with the Papacy, or in futile efforts to establish their authority over Italy and Sicily. Hence when, at the end of the fifteenth century, England, France, and Spain became strong, centralised, national states, Germany sank into a chaos of complete feudal disintegration. The name Germany, indeed, ceased to be much more than a geographical expression, under which was included a congeries of some 360 almost independent powers or impotencies. True, there was usually an elected "emperor" in existence to whom all these petty rulers owed a nominal allegiance; but his empire was devoid of executive force, and such influence as he had was due to his private resources. After 1437 the Habsburg Duke of Austria was regularly chosen to hold the titular headship of this "Holy Roman Empire of the German nation." The Reformation of the sixteenth century still further weakened the slender authority of the Habsburg emperor, since it alienated from him the majority of the North German princes and cities, who generally adopted some form of Protestant religion. The Treaties of Westphalia which ended the Thirty Years' War in 1648 stereotyped the divisions of Germany for a century and a half.

Although some changes took place in Germany during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries—the most important of which are delineated and described in the map illustrating the growth of Prussia—in the main the arrangements of 1648 held good at the outbreak of the French Revolution in 1789, and indeed until the Revolutionary Wars had raged for some years, and Austria had been defeated and compelled to make peace at Campo Formio in 1797. From 1797 till 1809 Germany passed through a rapid and bewildering succession of transformations which it is impossible in our limited space, and also unnecessary, for us to trace in detail. Suffice it to say that at the close of that critical period of twelve years, when conditions had become stabilised once more, (1) France had annexed all Germany west of the Rhine; (2) the Holy Roman Empire had been swept away and a more limited Empire of Austria set up in its place; (3) Prussia had been deprived of half her territories; and (4) all the rest of Germany had been incorporated into a so-called Confederation of the Rhine, the effective control of which lay in the hands of Napoleon. [*Vide inset on Map No. 2.*]

The overthrow of Napoleon (1813-15) destroyed this new organisation of Germany, and one of the most difficult of the problems which faced the diplomatists at the Congress of Vienna was the question in what form should Germany be reconstituted. Three schemes were propounded: first, the revival of the Holy Roman Empire—but the Habsburg ruler of Austria declined re-election to the visionary office which he had gladly abandoned; secondly, the formation of a German Federation—but against this the princes, jealous of their independence, protested; thirdly, a mere Confederation or *Bund*, a permanent league of autonomous potentates—and this scheme, the least satisfactory of the three, had to be adopted. The Napoleonic upheaval, however, had not been without its permanent effects. Many of the small states, especially the ecclesiastical principalities, had disappeared beyond the possibility of resuscitation. Hence the *Bund* of 1815 consisted of only thirty-nine states, viz. six kingdoms (Austria, Prussia, Bavaria, Hanover, Württemberg, Saxony); one electorate (Hesse-Cassel); seven grand-duchies (Baden, Mecklenburg-Schwerin, Mecklenburg-Strelitz, Hesse-Darmstadt, Luxemburg, Oldenburg, and Saxe-Weimar); eight duchies (Nassau, Brunswick, Holstein with Lauenburg, Saxe-Gotha, Anhalt-Dessau, Anhalt-Bernburg, Anhalt-Köthen, and Saxe-Hildburghausen); thirteen principalities (Saxe-Coburg, etc., etc.), and four free cities (Hamburg, Lübeck, Bremen,

HISTORICAL ATLAS OF EUROPE

Frankfort-on-Main). The central organ of the *Bund* was a Diet of diplomatic agents established in perpetual session at Frankfort-on-Main. It was, however, futile from the first. This futility was due to two chief causes: one was the chronic antagonism of Austria and Prussia; the other was the stolid refusal of the princes to obey the commands of the Diet, and the absence of any means for enforcing the Diet's authority. Hence anarchy was restored to Germany under the pseudonym of the constitution—anarchy tempered only by the despotism of Austria and Prussia when they could manage to work together.

Such was the *Bund*, or Confederation, of 1815, and such it continued to be until 1848, when for three years it was suspended by revolution. During this period, 1815–48, however, one notable movement towards the unification of Germany under Prussian hegemony took place. In 1819 Prussia initiated her famous customs-union or *Zollverein* by means of an agreement with Schwarzburg-Sondershausen. Similar agreements were made with Hesse-Darmstadt (1825), Bavaria and Württemberg (1829), and Hesse-Cassel (1831). Saxony and other states acceded in 1833 and a general union was instituted. Later additions included Baden (1835), Frankfurt (1846), Brunswick and Luxemburg (1842). By 1848 Austria and Hanover were the only important powers of Germany that held aloof.

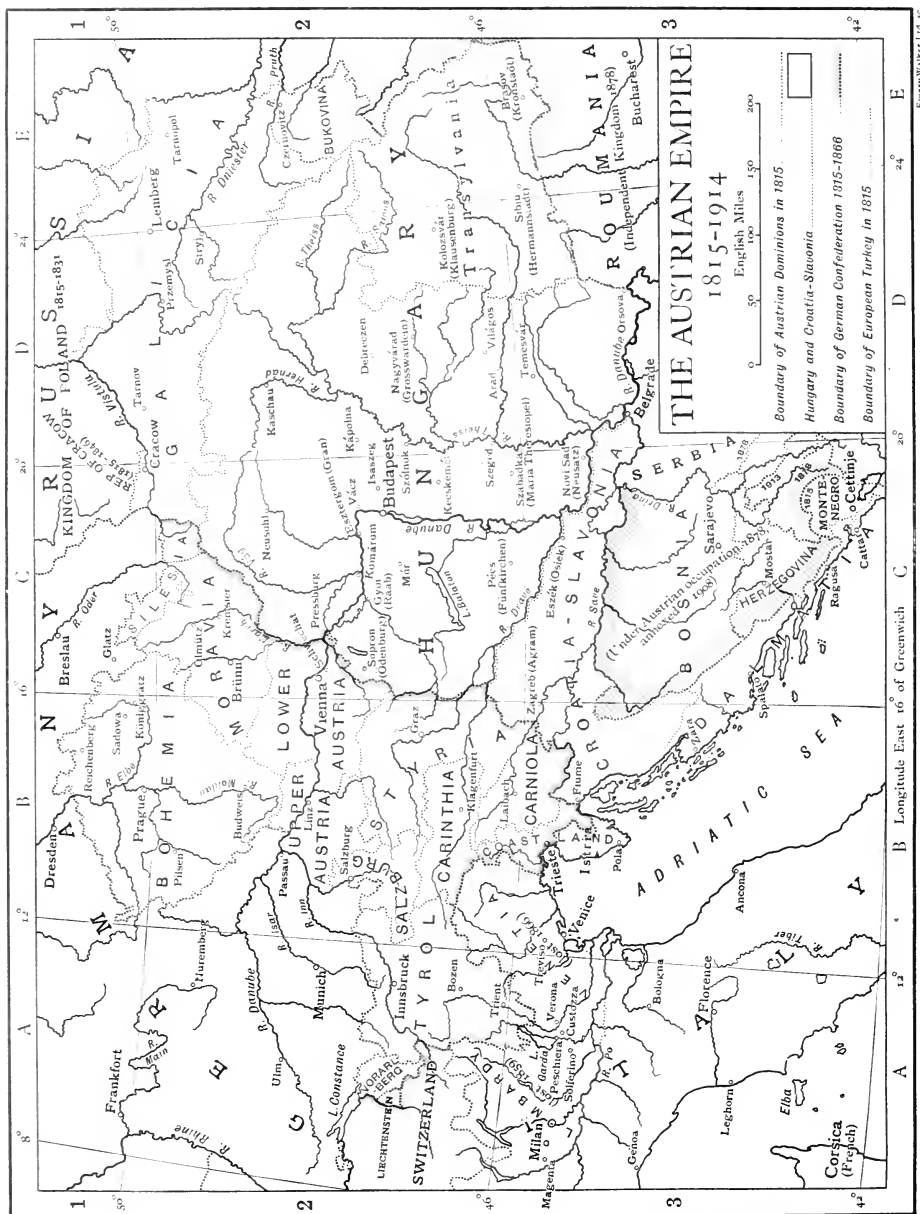
The Revolution of 1848 upset for a time both *Bund* and *Zollverein*. But Germany was not then ripe for democracy, and in 1851 the old order was restored. With it, however, came Bismarck as a factor in the Prussian Government, and he made the elimination of Austria from Germany and the suppression of democracy within Germany fundamental features of his policy. By means of three wars, deliberately planned and waged with ruthless efficiency, he achieved his purpose of the unification of Germany under the military autocracy of the Prussian House of Hohenzollern.

The Danish War of 1864 placed the Duchies of Schleswig and Holstein with Lauenburg under the joint control of Austria and Prussia.

The Austro-Prussian War of 1866, precipitated mainly by disputes concerning the disposition of the two conquered duchies, on the one hand expelled Austria from Germany altogether, and on the other hand enabled Prussia to annex not only Schleswig-Holstein but also Hanover, Hesse-Cassel, Nassau, and the free city of Frankfurt. Next year (1867) a new North-Germany Confederation was established under Prussian headship. It consisted of twenty-two states, viz. two kingdoms (Prussia and Saxony), five grand-duchies, five duchies, seven principalities, and three free cities.

The Southern German States—in particular Bavaria, Baden, Württemberg—held aloof, fearful of loss of independence. They tended, now that their old colleague Austria was overthrown, to turn to France as an ally against the menacing ascendancy of Prussia. Bismarck by three years (1867–70) of skilful and unscrupulous diplomacy managed to wean them from France and to engineer the war with Napoleon III., which he saw would be necessary before German unification could be completed. The result of the Franco-Prussian War was, first, the founding of the German Empire, in which the Southern States were joined to the Northern Confederation in a new federal constitution; secondly, the annexation from France of the provinces of Alsace and Lorraine. No further territorial changes of importance marked the progress of continental Germany from 1871 till the outbreak of the Great War of 1914–1918. In 1884, however, Germany began to establish her colonial empire [*vide* Map No. 9], and in 1890 she effected with a too-friendly Britain the exchange of Zanzibar for Heligoland.

One further point may be mentioned in connection with this map. The Netherlands were included in the mediæval Germanic Empire, and indeed were not formally recognised as independent till 1648. At that time the Dutch Netherlands formed a federal republic under the stadtholdership of the Prince of Orange, while the Belgian Netherlands were included in the Spanish monarchy. In 1714 the Belgian Netherlands were ceded to Austria, and Austrian they remained until they were overrun by the armies of the French Revolutionists and absorbed in the French Republic. They continued to be controlled by the French, under one form of government or another, until 1814, when the allied forces of the Fourth Coalition occupied them. At the Congress of Vienna the Belgian Netherlands were united to the Dutch Netherlands under the restored House of Orange in order that there might be a strong barrier-state on the north-east frontier of France. The union, however, was not a happy one. In 1830 the Belgians revolted and secured their independence. This independence was recognised by the Great Powers in 1831 (Treaty of London), but not by Holland. Dutch recognition came, however, in 1839, and at that date Belgium was established as a permanently neutralised state under the protection and guarantee of Britain, Austria, France, Russia, and Prussia.



THE AUSTRIAN EMPIRE : 1815-1914

FEW relics of the Middle Ages suffered more under the blows of Napoleon than did the House of Habsburg. The possessions of that House, accumulated by a series of diplomatic marriages and politic wars extending over a period of five centuries, were more widely scattered and more heterogeneous than those of any other Great Power. When in 1792 the Emperor Leopold was forced into war by Revolutionary France he was not only the titular head of the Holy Roman Empire, but was also the direct ruler of Austria, Hungary, Bohemia, Moravia, Styria, Carinthia, Carniola, Vorarlberg, Tyrol, Croatia, Slavonia, Galicia, Milan, Mantua, Tuscany, together with far-sundered territories such as Breisgau on the Rhine and the Belgian Netherlands. These miscellaneous dominions contained inhabitants drawn from more than a dozen different races, among which the chief were German, Magyar, Czech, Croat, Slovene, Slovak, Pole, Ruthene, Roumanian, Italian, Fleming, and Belgian. The government of so varied an assortment of countries and peoples was almost necessarily autocratic and imperial, as opposed to democratic and national. Hence at the close of the eighteenth century, when the spirit of the French Revolution was abroad, a general discontent was rife throughout the Habsburg monarchy foreboding revolt and dismemberment. In these circumstances it is not remarkable that during the struggle with France the House of Habsburg suffered a series of shattering reverses. Four times were the imperial armies overthrown, and four times was the government of Vienna compelled to accept humiliating terms of peace. It lies outside the scope of this note to specify the numerous territorial rearrangements effected successively by the treaties of Campo Formio (1797), Lunéville (1801), Pressburg (1805), and Vienna (1809). Suffice it to say that the House of Habsburg lost all its outlying possessions and was reduced to the condition of a purely Danubian principality which had no access to the sea at any point. In 1806, too, the Holy Roman Empire (founded by Charlemagne a thousand years before) was dissolved, and its ruler forced to restrict himself to the new territorial title of "Emperor of Austria."

The defeat of Napoleon in 1813-15 brought the Habsburg dominions once more into the melting-pot, and enabled extensive recoveries to be effected. The Emperor Francis, however, and his able minister, Metternich, who together controlled Austrian policy at the Congress of Vienna, had no wish to restore the whole chaotic scheme of 1792. They refused to revive the Holy Roman Empire, and they preferred to abandon for ever their old scattered possessions on the Rhine and in the Netherlands in order to establish a stronger hold over Italy and Dalmatia. Hence in return for their surrender of Belgium, Luxemburg, Breisgau, and various other small territories in the west, they received or recovered Salzburg (in exchange for Tuscany), Lombardy, Venetia, Trieste, Istria, and Dalmatia with Cattaro. The Germanic portions of this reconstituted Austrian Empire [see boundaries shown in the accompanying map] were included in the new German Confederation or *Bund*.

The principal subsequent changes in the Austrian Empire were as follows : In 1846, as a sequel to the Russian absorption of the kingdom of Poland, the small Polish Republic of Cracow (set up in 1815) was annexed. In 1848 there was a general upheaval in the Habsburg dominions, accompanied by the fall of Metternich and the abdication of the Emperor Ferdinand—an upheaval which seemed to portend the imminent dissolution of the "ramshackle empire." The Magyars of Hungary, the Czechs of Bohemia, the Slavs of Illyria, the Italians of Lombardy and Venetia, the Poles of Galicia, the Ruthenes of Ladomeria, all rose in simultaneous revolt. If only they had been united the Habsburg monarchy must have collapsed. But they were divided by irreconcilable antagonisms among themselves : Magyar loathed Slav ; Pole hated Ruthene. Hence the Habsburg by cleverly dividing his foes was able to continue to rule.

HISTORICAL ATLAS OF EUROPE

The revolts were all crushed, although the crushing of the last and most formidable—that of the Magyars in Hungary—required the assistance of the Russian Tsar. The most complete of all the failures of 1848 was that of the Italians. In spite of aid rendered to the rebels by the king of Sardinia, the re-assertion of Austrian authority over Lombardy and Venetia was so emphatic that all clear-sighted Italian statesmen recognised that the expulsion of the “whitecoats” from the peninsula could be effected only by means of foreign help. Hence by the offer of the surrender of Savoy and Nice [*vide* Map No. 7] the co-operation of Napoleon III., Emperor of the French, was secured. The result was the expulsion of the Austrians from Lombardy in 1859. Since nothing further could be hoped for from the French, the Italian patriots next turned to Prussia, which under Bismarck was preparing to oust Austria from Germany. The sequel to the Austro-Prussian War of 1866 was thus not only the destruction of the German Confederation and the total elimination of Austria from Germany, but also the recovery of Venetia for the new Italian kingdom. This double disaster to the House of Habsburg necessitated a reorganisation of the whole administration. By the *Ausgleich*, or compromise, of 1867, the Hungarians were taken into equal partnership and the Dual Monarchy (which lasted till 1918) was constituted.

In 1878 Bosnia and Herzegovina were by the Treaty of Berlin placed under Austro-Hungarian rule although they were still regarded as part of the Turkish Empire. In 1908, as a sequel to the Turkish Revolution of that year, Austria-Hungary repudiated Turkish sovereignty and announced their full incorporation with the Habsburg dominions. This was one of the first of the steps that led to the World War of 1914.



ITALY : 1815-1914

In the sixth century of the Christian era Italy lost the unity which for a thousand years she had enjoyed under the Roman name. In the early part of the century, it is true, the Gothic invaders were overthrown and expelled (533-553), but the declining Roman power was exhausted in the conflict, and when in 568 the Lombards entered the peninsula in force they established themselves almost without opposition. But they never made themselves masters of the whole of Italy. Open country rather than cities attracted them, and Rome, Naples, Venice, Genoa, and many other walled towns remained under the authority of the Byzantine Emperor. This authority soon, however, became merely nominal. The Byzantine power decayed; theological quarrels separated Greek from Latin Christendom; until finally in 800 Pope Leo III. signalled the formal repudiation of the control of the ruler of Constantinople by crowning a new Roman Emperor in the West, viz. Charles the Great, King of the Franks. One cause which undoubtedly contributed to this translation of the Empire was that a few years earlier (774) Charles had overthrown the Lombards and had himself assumed their crown. But not even Charles the Great was able to restore unity to the peninsula. He was never recognised in Venice, or in Naples and the provinces of the South. Disunion was still further increased when in the ninth century the Saracens, having overrun Sicily, attained a foothold on the mainland. In vain throughout the Middle Ages did Emperors and Popes seek to extend their authority over all the peoples of Italy, and when Emperors and Popes began to quarrel with one another (as they did with deadly ferocity in the eleventh century) the task of unification became hopeless. Empire and Papacy destroyed one another as political powers, and each part of Italy was left free to develop its own independence.

In these circumstances a medley of powers grew up, of which the most important were Naples, the Papal States, Florence, Milan, and Venice. Their wars, intrigues, alliances, and treacheries fill the history of the later mediaeval period. Finally, they began to call in the greater European powers to aid them in their domestic brawls, and as a result Italy became the battle-ground of French and Spaniards, Swiss and Germans. Thus it continued until the time of the French Revolution.

By that time, however, a new actor of prime importance had appeared upon the Italian stage. This was the House of Savoy. Established in 1027 in the Burgundian territories south of the Lake of Geneva, this House had gradually extended its dominion, by the usual means of marriage and war, until it stretched across the Alps and by 1748 reached almost as far as Piacenza down the valley of the Po. It had also, in 1720, acquired (in exchange for Sicily) Sardinia, from which island the head of the House took the title of king. The king of Sardinia became involved in the Revolutionary Wars in 1792. He at once lost his ancestral land of Savoy, and in 1796 Piedmont also was reduced. This conquest of Piedmont was the first notable achievement of Napoleon Bonaparte. The great commander followed it up by a brilliant series of campaigns, in which the whole Italian peninsula was brought under French control. It lies outside our scope to trace them in detail. Suffice it to say that by 1810 Italy had been reduced to three political divisions, all dominated by Napoleon. First: Savoy, Piedmont, Genoa, Parma, Tuscany, and the Papal States had been incorporated into the French Empire. Secondly: Milan, Mantua, Modena, the Legations, and Venice had been combined into a "kingdom of Italy" under Napoleon's step-son, Eugène de Beauharnais. Thirdly: Naples was ruled by Napoleon's brother-in-law, Murat (*vide* inset on Map 2).

The semblance of unity thus given to Italy by Napoleon was destroyed in 1815. Eight States were set up on the general principle of the restoration of the *status quo ante*: (1) Austria received Lombardy and Venetia; (2) the king of Sardinia came back to Savoy and Piedmont,

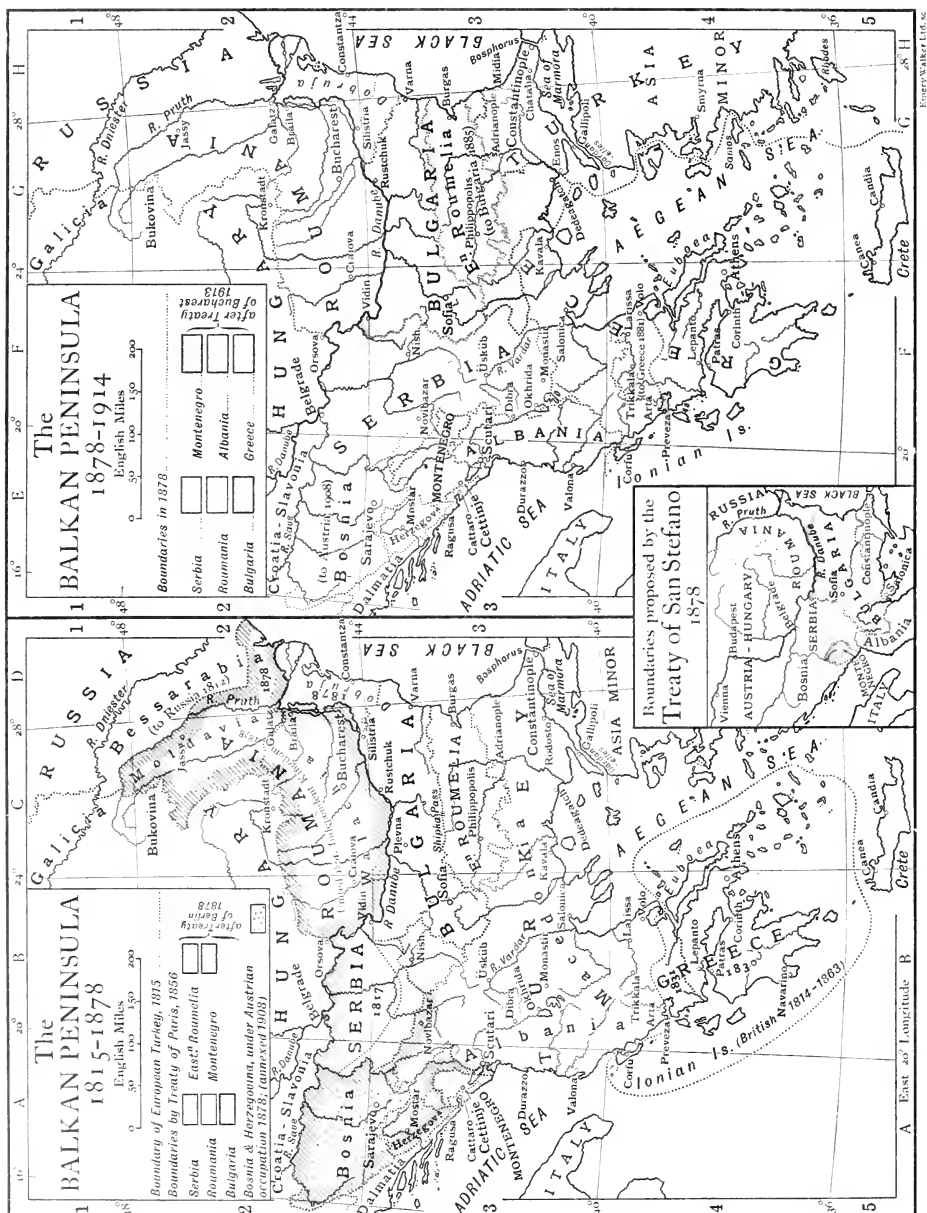
HISTORICAL ATLAS OF EUROPE

to which were added Genoa and Nice ; (3) Parma, Lucca, Modena, and Tuscany recovered independence under members of the House of Habsburg ; (4) the Papal States were returned to the Pope ; (5) Naples was handed back to Ferdinand of Bourbon, whose authority for ten years had been limited to Sicily.

This reactionary settlement was profoundly distasteful to Italian patriots, and at once a movement began to expel the Austrians, to unify the peninsula, and to establish constitutional government. Strenuous efforts were made in 1821, 1831, and 1848 to realise these ideals, but without avail. It became evident that Italy could not accomplish her liberation without external assistance. Hence in 1858 the king of Sardinia made with Napoleon III. the Compact of Plombières, which secured French aid. Then followed the war of 1859, as the result of which the Austrians were driven out of Lombardy. As a sequel to this great event, Parma, Tuscany, Modena, Romagna, Umbria, and the Marches (the last three being parts of the Papal States) expelled their rulers and elected to join the growing Sardinian kingdom (1860). Next Sicily and Naples rose in revolt, and, with the aid of Garibaldi and his Thousand, expelled the Bourbons, and sought incorporation with what now began to be called the "kingdom of Italy" (1860-61). Only Venetia and the States of the Church remained unredeemed. The acquisition of these resulted from the politic alliance of the kingdom of Italy with the rising power of Prussia. In 1866 Italy joined Prussia against Austria, and although she herself suffered some serious reverses by land and sea, she reaped her reward in the occupation of Venetia—Venetia, however, shorn of the important regions of the Southern Tyrol and Istria. In 1870 the Franco-Prussian War compelled Napoleon III. to withdraw the garrisons which hitherto he had kept in Rome to support the authority of his ally the Pope. Hence on September 20 of that year the Italian troops were able, after a merely nominal struggle, to occupy the Eternal City, and to complete the structure of the kingdom.

But still the *Italia irredenta* of the North-East frontier remained as an inducement to Italy to enter the Great War on the side of the Allies in 1915.





THE BALKAN PENINSULA : 1815-1914

If one were asked to place in order of demerit the evil men whose machinations helped to precipitate the World War of 1914, one would have to assign a high place in the scale of bad pre-eminence to John Cantacuzenos, the Byzantine usurper of the fourteenth century. For it was he who called the Ottoman Turks into Europe. As the result of his treachery they first established themselves at Gallipoli in 1358. From that date their advance was rapid. They secured Adrianople in 1361; overthrew coalitions of the Balkan and other Christian peoples at the Maritza, 1371, Kossovo, 1389, and Nicopolis, 1396; secured Salonica, 1428, and completed the conquest of the Byzantine Empire by the capture of Constantinople in 1453. The conqueror of the imperial city, Mahomet II., before his death in 1481 had extended the Ottoman power over nearly the whole of the Balkan Peninsula, over the Danubian principalities of Moldavia and Walachia, and over most of the Aegean islands. But Turkish acquisitions in Europe did not end there. Before the end of the reign of the great sultan, Solymán the Magnificent (1520-66), under whom the Ottoman power reached its meridian height, all Hungary (except a strip west of Komorn and the river Raab), Transylvania, Bukovina, and Bessarabia, besides many Asiatic territories, had been added to the enormous and menacing Turkish dominion.

The beginning of the Ottoman decline may perhaps be dated from the defeat of the Sultan's Mediterranean fleet by the Spaniards at Lepanto in 1571. But no marked decadence was evident until a century later, when in 1683 Vienna resisted a determined assault, and when three years later Buda Pest was recovered for the Hungarians. From that time onward the Turkish frontiers were rapidly pushed back. Until the middle of the eighteenth century the task of recovering Christian Europe from the Asiatic oppressor fell upon the House of Habsburg, and gradually during that period all Hungary and Transylvania, with much of Slavonia and Croatia, were liberated. Then Russia, as champion of the Greek Church and the Slavonic peoples, entered the arena and claimed to share with Austria the heritage of the "Sick Man." Hence arose unhappy rivalries and disastrous intrigues. By the Treaty of Kutchuk Kainardji, 1774, Russia acquired the right of protection over the Greek Christians in the Turkish Empire.

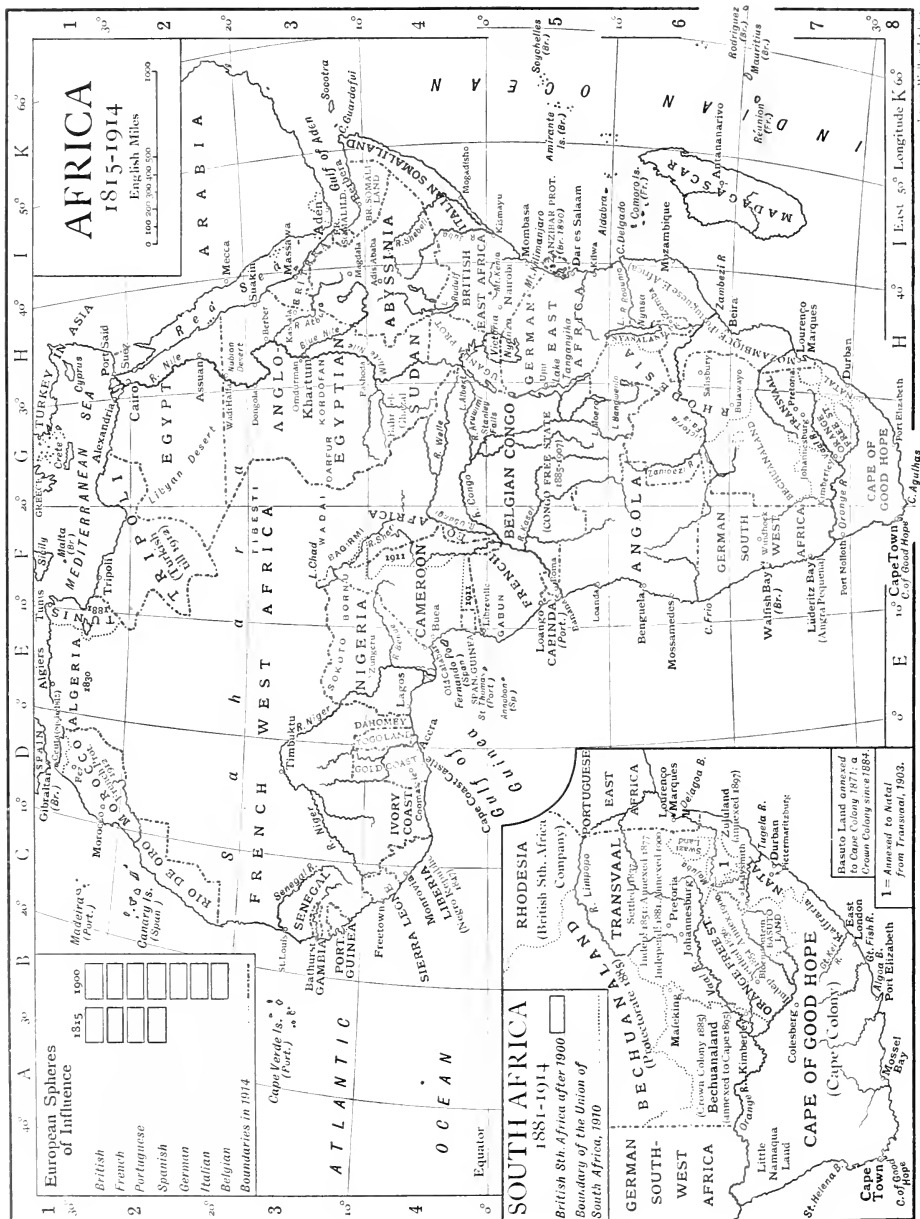
During the four centuries which separated the fatal field of Kossovo from the French Revolution (1389-1789) the subject Christian peoples of the Balkan Peninsula had remained for the most part apathetic and inert. True, the Montenegrins in their mountain fastnesses were never fully reduced; but Serbians, Bulgarians, Greeks, and Roumanians seemed to be crushed beyond the possibility of revivification. The French Revolution, however, with its sequel in Napoleonic adventures in the Near East and British occupations, had a remarkable effect in restoring animation. Montenegro asserted complete independence in 1796 and secured its recognition by Turkey in 1799. Serbia rose in revolt in 1804 and by 1817 obtained virtual autonomy, although the Ottoman garrisons were not withdrawn till 1867, nor full recognition of sovereignty given till 1878. Greece began her great struggle for national existence in 1821, and by the aid of Russia, France, and Britain achieved it in 1831. The Danubian principalities, by the good offices of Russia in the Treaty of Adrianople, 1829, became practically self-governing States, acknowledging a merely nominal Turkish suzerainty. Even this was removed by the Treaty of Paris, 1856, and then the two principalities speedily effected their union into the single State of "Roumania" (1859). The Treaty of Berlin (1878) recognised the complete independence of Roumania, and in 1881 its ruler, Charles of Hohenzollern, assumed the title of King. The Bulgarians were the last of the Balkan peoples to strike for freedom. They were situated too near the centre of the Turkish power to move with impunity. In 1875, however, they put their fate to the test. The Turk retaliated with the "Bulgarian

HISTORICAL ATLAS OF EUROPE

atrocities." Russia came to the rescue of the oppressed Christian race. The Russo-Turkish War, 1877-78, was followed, first, by the Treaty of San Stefano, which proposed to set up a large autonomous Bulgaria that would have dominated the Balkan Peninsula; secondly, by the Treaty of Berlin, which drastically reduced the Bulgarian boundaries and established the condition of things that in the main endured until the Balkan War of 1912.

The main territorial changes effected during the years 1815-78 were as follows: (1) The Treaty of Adrianople (1829), which bound Turkey to accept any settlement of the Greek question agreed upon by the Powers, was followed by a Protocol (1830), which fixed the Greek frontier at a line drawn from the river Aspro-Potamo, on the Gulf of Patras, to the mouth of the river Spercheius on the east. This line of partition caused, however, great dissatisfaction, since it left Acarnania and much of Ætolia to the Turk. Hence it was revised in 1831 and the line from the Gulf of Arta to the Gulf of Volo substituted. (2) The Treaty of Paris (1856) compelled Russia to cede to Roumania the southern strip of Bessarabia, which commanded the Danube, and placed the navigation of that river under international control. (3) In 1863 Great Britain ceded to Greece her protectorate over the Ionian Islands.

The Treaty of Berlin (July 1878), which superseded the Russo-Turkish Treaty of San Stefano (March 1878), made profound changes in the Peninsula. An independent Bulgaria, extending from the Danube to the Balkan Mountains, was set up; Serbia received a small accession of territory including Nish; Montenegro acquired a strip of Bosnia; Bosnia and Herzegovina were placed under Austrian control; Roumania (to her great disgust) was required to restore to Russia the portion of Bessarabia which she had secured in 1856; in return, the northern part of the Dobruja was bestowed upon her. The principal subsequent modifications of the Balkan maps were: (1) In 1881 the Greek frontier was extended to include Thessaly and part of Epirus; (2) in 1885 Eastern Roumelia revolted from Turkey and was joined to Bulgaria; (3) in 1897 the Greco-Turkish War was followed by a slight rectification of frontier in favour of Turkey; (4) in 1898 Crete obtained autonomy under European supervision—the nominal suzerainty of Turkey being still recognised; in 1908 Austria converted her administrative control over Bosnia and Herzegovina into full sovereignty. This last high-handed act led to the formation of the Balkan League, which was primarily anti-Austrian rather than anti-Turkish. Serbia, Montenegro, Bulgaria, and Greece bound themselves together to maintain the freedom of the Peninsula from external control. Hence followed the first Balkan War (1912), which all but expelled the Turk from Europe. This, however, was followed by the suicidal Second Balkan War (1913), in which Bulgaria fought Serbia, Greece, and Montenegro (joined towards the end by Roumania) concerning the partition of the spoil. Bulgaria was defeated and the Treaties of Bucharest and Constantinople (1913) embodied her humiliation. By this settlement of 1913 Serbia acquired parts of Novibazar and Macedonia; Montenegro, the remainder of Novibazar; Greece, all Epirus, with the southern portion of Macedonia, including the seaboard from Salonica to Kavala; Bulgaria, part of Thrace; Roumania, the southern part of the Dobruja; while Crete proclaimed her union with Greece. In February 1914 Albania became an autonomous principality under Frederick William of Wied, but his rule lasted only until the September of the same year. By that time the Great War had broken out—a war due to no small extent to the unsatisfactory provisions of the Balkan Treaties of 1913. In November 1914 Turkey entered the war on the side of the Central Empires, and thus provided the civilised world with an opportunity to revoke the invitation of John Cantacuzenos.



AFRICA : 1815-1914

I

FEW maps changed more during the course of the eventful century 1815-1914 than did that of Africa. At the beginning of the period, although the whole of the coast-line was known and much of it was occupied by European settlers, the interior of the Continent was still almost wholly unexplored. Of the four great rivers—the Nile, the Niger, the Congo, the Zambesi—not one had been traced to its source. The vast lakes of the east were undiscovered and unsuspected. The lofty snow-clad equatorial mountains of Uganda had yet to be discerned by the eye of the white man, but instead of them the early nineteenth-century maps showed, south of the Sahara, an enormous range of entirely imaginary “Mountains of the Moon.” The natives of the central forests remained undisturbed by civilisation. Four European nations had settlements upon the African littoral. (1) Britain so early as 1631 had planted a station on the Gambia ; in 1667 she had secured a footing at Cape Coast Castle on the Gold Coast ; in 1787 Sierra Leone had been acquired ; and finally, in 1814, the Cape of Good Hope had been taken over by treaty arrangement from its original settlers, the Dutch. (2) Portugal possessed, as the relics of her fifteenth-century voyages of discovery, the Madeira and the Cape Verde Islands, with a portion of the Guinea and Angola coasts on the western mainland, while on the east she held a series of posts along the Mozambique shore facing Madagascar. (3) France, by the peace of 1814, had just recovered Senegal which Britain had taken from her in 1763. (4) Spain held the Canary Islands which she had conquered in 1495, and on the mainland, Ceuta, opposite Gibraltar, which she had seized in 1580.

II

There is no space here to summarise, however briefly, the fascinating story of the nineteenth-century exploration of the interior of Africa. An excellent short account of it will be found in Mr. E. Heawood's *Geography of Africa*, while those who desire fuller information will be able to obtain it from Dr. J. S. Keltie's *Partition of Africa* or Sir Harry Johnston's *History of the Colonisation of Africa*. Suffice it to say that the sources of the Nile and the Great Lakes were opened up by Bourbon, Speke, Grant, Baker, and others ; that the devious course of the Niger was traced by a long series of travellers, among whom Mungo Park, Clapperton, Barth, and Overweg were eminent ; and that the vast basins of the Zambesi and the Congo were explored by a devoted band of missionaries and adventurers, of whom Livingstone and Stanley were pioneers. The newly discovered regions, with their inexhaustible stores of natural wealth, speedily became the subject of dispute between rival European powers. Happily these disputes were prevented from attaining the temperature of war by a series of sedative discussions, of which the Berlin Conference of 1884 was the most general and the most important. By means of negotiation Africa was divided into spheres of influence, and rules were laid down peacefully to regulate all future European expansion. By that time Germany, Italy, and Belgium—three kingdoms new in Europe itself—had appeared upon the African scene. Hence before the close of our period seven European states shared the spoils of the Southern Continent, and of its 11,500,000 square miles of territory, only Abyssinia (350,000 square miles) and Liberia (41,000 square miles) remained wholly free and independent. All that can be attempted here is a cursory enumeration of the main acquisitions of the seven powers during the hundred years under review.

III

Britain, in the region of her earliest settlements, secured Lagos by cession from a native king in 1861. The Niger Company began its operations in 1879 ; in 1886 it obtained its governing charter ; in 1900 political authority was transferred to the Crown. In South Africa, Dutch discontent with English rule led to the Great Trek in 1833-40. This resulted, directly or indirectly, in the founding of three new colonies, viz. Natal, Orange River, and Transvaal. Over each of them Britain was ultimately compelled, owing to troubles with the natives, to

HISTORICAL ATLAS OF EUROPE

assert authority, viz. Natal, 1842; Orange River, 1848; and Transvaal, 1877. The settlement of Natal remained permanent; the other two, however, recovered independence in 1854 and 1881 respectively, and not until 1900 were they finally incorporated in the British Empire. Meanwhile the activity of various explorers, pioneers, and merchants had extended British control over Basutoland (1871), Bechuanaland (1885), Rhodesia (1889), and Zululand (1897). In East Africa, on the Gulf of Aden, British Somaliland (1884) and the island of Sokotra (1886) were secured as safeguards to the navigation of the Suez Canal and the sea-route to India. The British East Africa Company began its work in 1887. In 1890 Zanzibar was acquired from Germany in exchange for Heligoland. At the same time Uganda was recognised as falling within the British sphere of influence, and its development was commenced. As to Egypt in the north, the making of the Suez Canal in 1869 and the bankruptcy of the Khedive Ismail in 1876 led to a joint English and French control which lasted till 1882, when France withdrew, leaving England alone. The situation was not fully defined until 1904, and even then the fiction of Turkish suzerainty remained. This last relic of mediaevalism, indeed, was not swept away until the outbreak of the Great War. On December 18, 1914, the Turkish suzerainty was repudiated, and the Khedive became a Sultan under British protection. The Sudan was brought under Anglo-Egyptian control as the result of Kitchener's campaigns in 1896-98.

IV

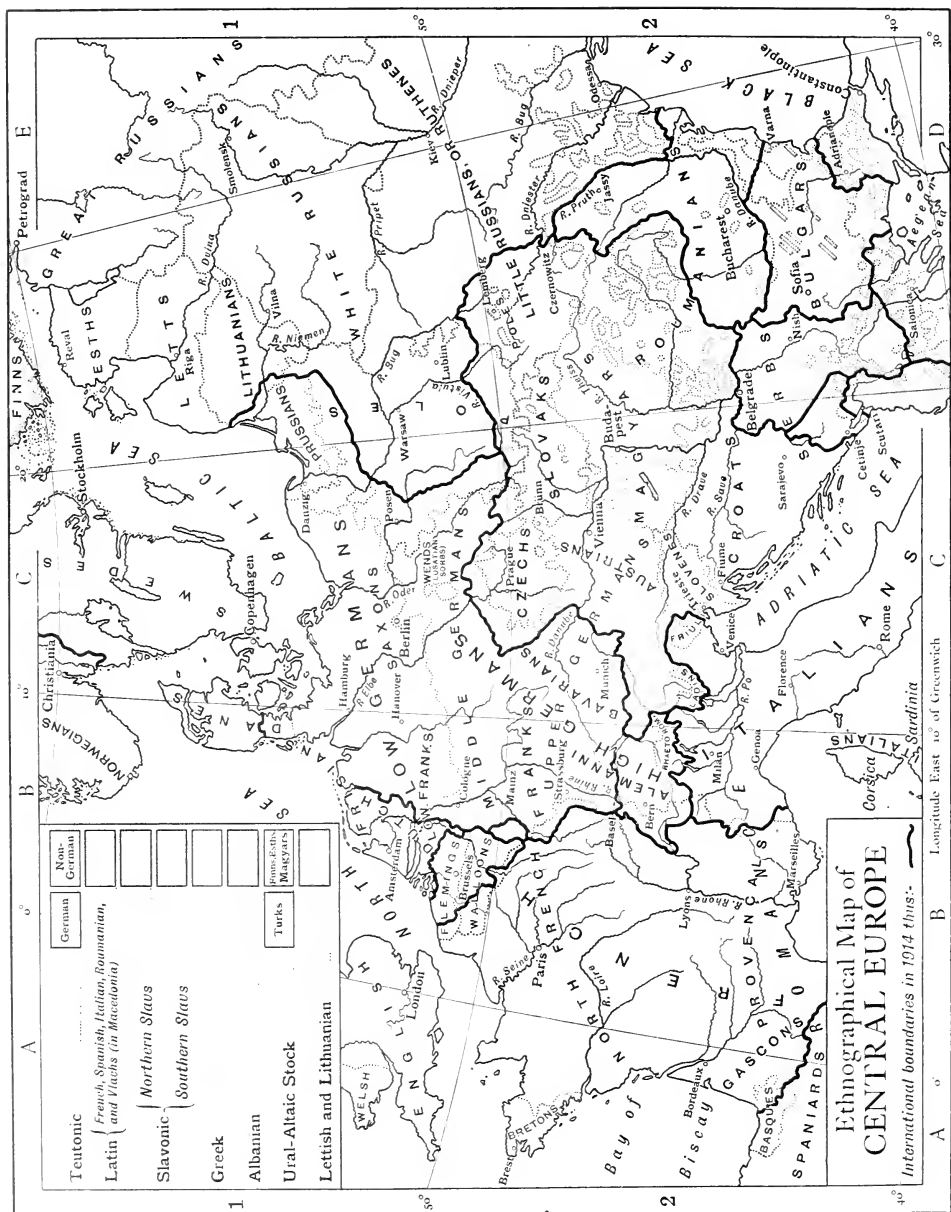
The French immensely extended their African dominions during the nineteenth century. In 1830 the falling Bourbon monarchy sought popularity by annexing Algeria, but it was left to its Orleanist supplanter, Louis Philippe, to develop its resources (1830-48). In 1855 French Somaliland was acquired by purchase from Turkey. In 1881 Tunis was seized and added to Algeria, and then both from the Mediterranean coast and also from the Atlantic base of Senegal a determined effort was made to explore and dominate the whole of North-West Africa, as yet unclaimed by whites. As a result the French reached the ocean at three new points, viz. between Portuguese Guinea and Sierra Leone, the Ivory Coast, and Dahomey. At the same time they penetrated into the interior, a notable stage of their advance being the occupation of Timbuktu in 1894. They claimed Morocco, too, as within their sphere of influence. This claim caused trouble, both with the native rulers and with rival European powers; but a series of treaties, 1904-12, regularised their position and delimited their boundaries. During the same period Madagascar was brought under French control. Active operations began in 1883, and the French protectorate was recognised as established in 1890.

V

As to the other European powers, Portugal started no new colonies in the nineteenth century, but she vastly extended her Angola and Mozambique settlements into their respective hinterlands. Spain, in the partition of 1884, secured rights over the Rio de Oro, and in the Moroccan settlements was allowed to keep Morocco's strip of Mediterranean coast. Germany in 1884 made her first appearance as a colonising power. In that year she occupied Lüderitz Bay (German South-West Africa), Togoland, the Cameroons, and the German East African littoral. Italy proclaimed a protectorate over Eritrea on the Red Sea in 1882; in 1889 she extended her claims to Somaliland, south of Cape Guardafui. She tried, also, but without success, to absorb Abyssinia. In 1912 she annexed Tripoli from Turkey. Finally, Belgium became an African power. In 1879 an International Association was formed by the Belgian King Leopold for the development of Central Africa. In 1884 the territories exploited by the Association were erected into the Congo Free State, with (1885) Leopold as their sovereign. In 1907 this state was formally annexed to Belgium as the Belgian Congo.

VI

It does not fall within the scope of this sketch to chronicle the results of the Great War. It may be noted, however, that during 1914-18 Germany was erased from the list of African powers. Togoland was conquered August 1914, and has been divided between Britain and France. German South-West Africa was reduced by July 1915; it has been ceded as a protectorate to Britain. The Cameroons fell in February 1916; except for a slight modification of the British Nigerian frontier, they have gone to France. Finally, after a prolonged struggle, German East Africa was reduced in November 1918; it has been occupied by Britain under the provisional title of the "Tanganyika Territory."



ETHNOGRAPHICAL MAP OF CENTRAL EUROPE

I

ETHNOGRAPHY, the science which endeavours to depict on a map the racial and national divisions of mankind, is a branch of knowledge still in its infancy. The preliminary problems, indeed, concerning the meanings of the terms "race" and "nationality" can as yet hardly be said to be determined. It seems to be generally agreed, however, that originally and as a species mankind is one, and that the differences which now sharply distinguish the three main groups of men, viz. Ethiopian, Mongolian, and Caucasian, are differences due to the influence of climatic and other environment. The Caucasian, or white race, is that which has made itself dominant in Europe. It used to be the custom among writers of a generation ago to distinguish two great subsections of this race, viz. the Turanian and the Aryan, but it is now recognised that the distinction between the two is linguistic rather than ethnological. Modern investigations incline to a new threefold classification; they divide the principal European peoples into Mediterranean, Nordic, and Alpine. (1) The Mediterranean race is supposed to have spread westward from the primal Indo-Malaysian cradle of humanity until it occupied all the North African littoral. Both Spain and Italy-Sicily were at that remote period joined to Africa, and across these land-bridges the Mediterranean aborigines made their way into Europe. From these were descended the Iberians, who occupied Spain and thence spread northward over Gaul and the British Isles; the Ligurians, who overran Sicily, Italy, and the Riviera; and the Pelasgians, who made their home in the Balkan peninsula. The characteristics of this Mediterranean race are long skull, short stature, dark complexion and hair, broad nose. (2) The Nordic race presents striking superficial differences from the Mediterranean race. Its typical representative is the "blond beast" of Nietzsche—the tall, light, flaxen-haired Teuton. But the cranial measurements of the Nordic man are so nearly proportionate to those of his Mediterranean predecessor that some ethnologists tend to the view that the Nordic man is merely a descendant of Mediterranean ancestors, and that his peculiar features are due to adaptation to the harder conditions of life in Northern Europe. Be that as it may, Scandinavia and North Germany appear to have been his first home. Thence he spread southward up the valleys of the Elbe, the Oder, and the Vistula; and westward towards the North Sea, the Rhine, and the Atlantic Ocean. To this race belonged the Goths, the Vandals, the Franks, the Lombards, the Angles, Saxons, and Jutes, and the many kindred peoples who began to play so great a part in European history in the early Middle Ages. (3) The Alpine race, pressing westward from Asiatic pasturelands, forced its way in between these two groups of peoples, and made good its hold on the uplands of Central Europe. Thence it extended its conquests towards the coast, and succeeded in making itself dominant over the Iberians both of Gaul and Britain. The characteristic feature of the members of this race is the short round skull and the broad face. Its western representatives have commonly been known as Celts; its eastern representatives as Slavs.

II

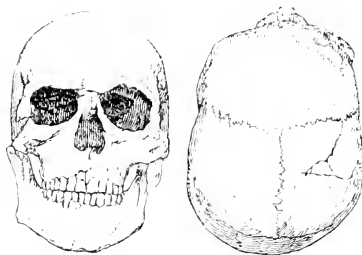
It will be seen that these primitive racial distinctions correspond hardly at all to modern ethnographical divisions. There is, indeed, in present-day Europe no such thing as a pure race. Fusion has been going on for countless ages, and only here and there, mainly in island solitudes or mountain fastnesses, can small groups displaying unmistakable racial characteristics be found. In Britain, for instance, all the three races have domiciled themselves. The Iberian type is dominant in the north and west of the island. The occurrence of a prehistoric Alpine

HISTORICAL ATLAS OF EUROPE

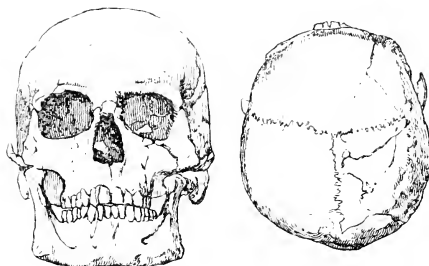
conquest is indicated primarily by the fact that the aboriginal Mediterranean language has been displaced by Celtic dialects. The Nordic type is in the ascendant in the south and east. Race, in truth, has played a secondary part in the formation of the modern nations and groups of nations. Language, and the culture which depends on language, have been incomparably more important, and it is upon language that the main divisions shown in the accompanying map are based. Subsidiary influences have been those of religion, economic interest, political community, and mere geographical contiguity. In Western Europe, in spite of the most varied racial intermixture, so powerful was the ancient impress of the Roman Empire, supplemented by the mediaeval moulding of the Catholic Church, that the term "Latin" marks the fact of the unity that was attained. In Eastern Europe the influence of the Tsars of Muscovy and of the Orthodox Greek Church has similarly consolidated many diverse varieties of Northern Slavs into a cultural community. But Central and Southern Europe is a mass of confused and conflicting groups. Towards the Baltic, Teutonic "Kultur" is dominant. The Letts and Lithuanians, however, represent peoples of Alpine stock that have never been Teutonised in either language or civilisation. The Middle and Lower Danube are held by Magyars and Turks, conquering Asiatic invaders of the Ural-Altaic stock. On the Mediterranean coast Greeks and Albanians retain tongues and traditions, dating from classical days, that keep them ethnologically separate from their Slavonic neighbours.

In a map of the small scale of the present one, the tiny racial and linguistic groups that perplex the reconstructors of Central and Southern Europe have of course to be ignored.

Some further notes on the present distribution of the peoples of Europe will be found in the comments on the last map of this Atlas.



Skull of a long-headed man found at Helporthorpe.



Skull of a round-headed man found at Cowlam.

From *British Barrows*, by William Greenwell, F.S.A., 1877.

By kind permission of the Clarendon Press.





B Meridian of 0° Greenwich

C

1





EUROPE AFTER THE PEACE TREATIES :

1919-20

THE ethnographical map on the preceding page portrays two important facts with unmistakable clearness. The first is that in the West of Europe the racial and linguistic masses are solid and compact, and that in this region ethnological boundaries broadly coincide with political boundaries. The second is that in the East of Europe precisely the opposite conditions prevail ; there the racial and linguistic units are mixed and scattered ; and there political boundaries show a ruthless disregard of ethnological divisions. While on the one hand England, France, Spain, and even Italy have managed to weld together many disparate elements into comparatively homogeneous nations, and have succeeded in founding on the basis of nationality comparatively stable States, on the other hand the empires of Germany, Austria-Hungary, Turkey, and even Russia remain loose-knit congeries of discordant fragments. Let us note a little more in detail the situation at the outbreak of the war in 1914. Germany, in spite of the appearance of unity produced by the impress of Prussian autocracy, was not only torn by the particularism of the smaller States, but was weakened by the presence of unassimilated and alien national groups of Wends in Lusatia, Poles in Posen and Danzig, Danes in Schleswig, and French in Alsace-Lorraine. Austria-Hungary consisted of two dominant peoples, viz. the German and the Magyar, together with some ten subject peoples, viz. Czechs, Slovaks, Poles, Ruthenes, Croats, Serbs, Slovenes, Roumanians, Italians, and Jews. Turkey, in her truncated European dominions, still held sway over multitudes of Bulgars and Greeks ; while, as a set-off against this, many Turks still lingered in emancipated Serbia, Roumania, Bulgaria, and Greece. Russia, beneath the imposing solidarity of the Tsardom, seethed with the disensions of some fifty racial and linguistic groups—to say nothing of the aggravating differences due to religious conflicts and divergent economic interests.

The war of 1914 was due to two main causes—the two causes which separately or in combination had again and again during the preceding century defied the efforts of the Concert of Europe to keep the peace. They were (1) imperial ambition, (2) national discontent. There can, of course, be no doubt that imperial ambition played the more prominent rôle. The Pan-German lust for expansion, for markets, for supremacy at sea, for colonial empire, for lordship of the East, for world-dominion—this was the prime precipitant. But it is unquestionable that Pan-German militarism was irritated and excited, was enabled to communicate its hopes and fears to the masses of the Teutonic peoples, and so was placed in a position to triumph by the restless agitation of Latin and Slavonic groups eager to shake off the Teutonic yoke. The French of Alsace-Lorraine longed to escape from the Zabern tyranny ; the Poles of Posen clamoured for reunion with their sundered kinsmen of Warsaw and Galicia ; the Czechs of Bohemia groaned for their long-lost independence ; the Slovaks of Hungary turned wistful eyes towards Prague. So, too, in the Middle East the Roumanians of Transylvania ardently desired re-amalgamation with their compatriots of Walachia, Moldavia, and Bessarabia ; the Serbs of Croatia, Slavonia, Bosnia, and Dalmatia all looked towards the goal of incorporation into a large South-Slavonic State—a goal attainable only by means of the disruption of the dual monarchy of Austria-Hungary ; in Macedonia and Thrace the disjointed fragments of hostile races and religions waged upon one another a ceaseless war of anathema and extermination. The murder of the Archduke Francis Ferdinand in the streets of Sarajevo on June 28, 1914, was but the spark which lit the flame of imperial ambition and exploded the highly-charged mines of national discontent.

Into the details of the great conflict which raged during the five years 1914-1919 it is alike impossible and needless for us here to enter. Enough to say that Germany, with her

HISTORICAL ATLAS OF EUROPE

Allies (Austria-Hungary, Turkey, and Bulgaria), after coming within an ace of victory on several occasions, was in the end decisively defeated. She was compelled to beg for an Armistice on November 11, 1918, and to accept the terms of a dictated peace at Versailles on June 28, 1919. By the defeat itself her imperial ambitions were entirely shattered and dissipated. The removal of her oppressive hegemony in Europe made possible the realisation of the national aspirations of many subject peoples. For the collapse of the German military power involved the disruption of the Austro-Hungarian empire, the surrender of Bulgaria, and the utter prostration of Turkey.

The task of the representatives of the victorious Allies, who met in Paris and Versailles to draw up the Treaty of Peace, was one of extraordinary difficulty. The complications caused by the rival and incompatible claims of their own members would have been hard enough to unravel, but these were rendered even more than normally tangled by the existence of several secret engagements (entered into under the extreme stress of the war) and by the disintegration of Russia resulting from the two revolutions of 1917. In the circumstances few of the specific provisions of the Treaties of 1919 can be regarded as permanent. They would in many cases, undoubtedly, be a source not of pacification but of fresh conflict, were it not for the happy fact that the first work of the Peace Conference was to establish an enduring League of Nations, and to create machinery for the treatment of grievances and the settlement of disputes. It is this provision for the pacific accomplishment of necessary territorial changes that most hopefully distinguishes the Treaties of 1919 from those of 1815.

Of the readjustments of boundaries effected during 1919 the following are the most important:

I. BY THE TREATY OF VERSAILLES WITH GERMANY (*June 8, 1919*).

1. *Absolute Cessions*.—(1) Alsace-Lorraine to France; (2) Moresnet to Belgium; (3) portions of Silesia, Posen, West Prussia, and East Prussia to Poland.

2. *Cessions subject to Plebiscite*.—(1) Portions of East Prussia, West Prussia, and Silesia, claimed by Poland; (2) Northern Schleswig, claimed by Denmark; (3) Malmédy and Eupen, claimed by Belgium.

3. *Provisional Cessions to League of Nations*.—(1) Danzig; (2) the Saar Basin, to be worked in the interests of France for fifteen years, when its destination is to be decided by plebiscite.

4. *Temporary Cessions to the Allies*.—(1) Memel and region round it, to go to either Poland or Lithuania; (2) German territories west of the Rhine, with bridgeheads, to be occupied for period five to fifteen years as guarantee for execution of the Treaty.

II. BY THE TREATY OF ST. GERMAIN-EN-LAYE WITH AUSTRIA (*September 10, 1919*).

1. The severance of Austria from Hungary is recognised, save that Austria is allowed to retain a few German districts on the frontier formerly under Hungarian rule.

2. A new independent State of Czecho-Slovakia is formed out of the territories of Bohemia, Moravia, and Austrian Silesia (with slight additions from Hungary and Germany).

3. Western Galicia is ceded to Poland, and Eastern Galicia to the Ruthenes of the Ukraine.

4. Bukovina is ceded to Roumania.

5. Bosnia, Herzegovina, Eastern Istria,¹ and Dalmatia are ceded to the new Croatian-Serbian State of Yugo-Slavia. The region of Klagenfurt, however, is subject to a plebiscite, and the frontier between Yugo-Slavia and Italy (involving the fate of Fiume) has to be fixed by the Powers.

6. The Trentino, with the Tyrol as far as the Brenner Pass—thus including a population of 250,000 German peasants—goes to Italy, as does Western Istria with Trieste.

7. Austria is not to join herself to Germany without the consent of the League of Nations.

Note.—Under this disruptive settlement Austria is reduced to the condition of a small and poor land-locked State, hardly bigger than the Serbia which in 1914 she attempted to destroy.

III. BY THE TREATY OF NEUILLY-SUR-SEINE WITH BULGARIA (*November 27, 1919*).

1. Yugo-Slavia acquires four small pieces of territory on the Bulgarian frontier.

2. The whole of the Aegean sea-board of Bulgaria is taken away and placed "at the disposal of the Allied Powers."

3. Some territory west and south of Adrianople—ceded to Bulgaria by Turkey in 1913—is also taken away and restored to Turkey.

The treaties with Hungary and Turkey were not concluded at the close of 1919. Hence the boundaries of Yugo-Slavia and Roumania on their Hungarian sides remained, and at the

¹ The fate of this territory remains undecided at the time of going to press.

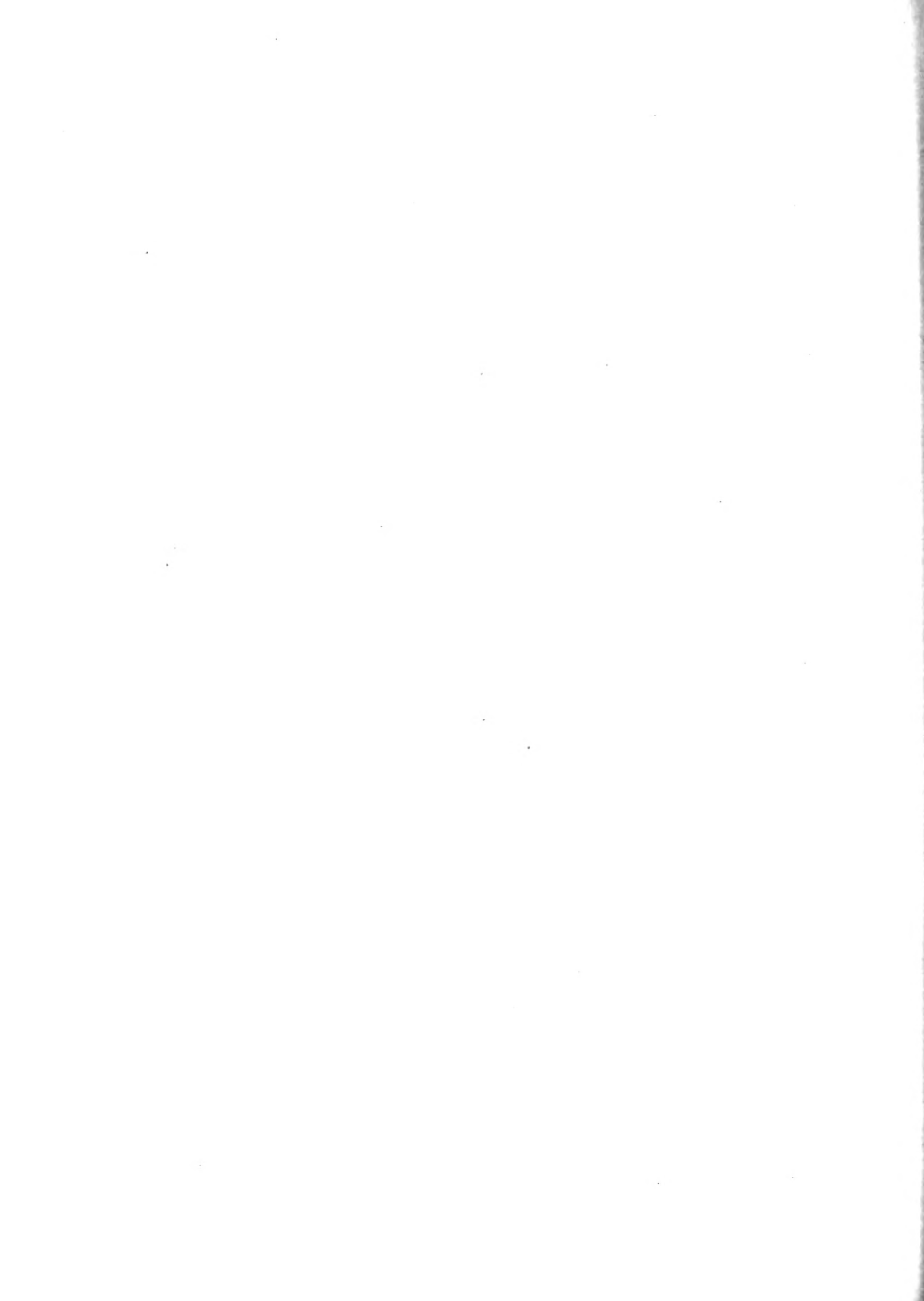
EUROPE AFTER THE PEACE TREATIES : 1919-20

date of writing still remain, in some uncertainty. The broad lines of the settlement, however, are fairly clear. Yugo-Slavia recovers on the north the Banat of Temesvar conquered by the Magyars in 1718, and on the south Croatia and Slavonia. Roumania is reunited to the Principality of Transylvania, which has been held by Hungary since 1699; the Dobruja also remains again under her control.

It will be seen from the above brief summary that in Central Europe three entirely new States have come into existence as the result of the war. They are named Czecho-Slovakia, Yugo-Slavia, and Poland. (1) Czecho-Slovakia consists of the regions already mentioned as ceded by Austria, together with a small fragment of German Silesia and a portion of Northern Hungary (including the important town of Pressburg). (2) Yugo-Slavia comprises the former kingdoms of Serbia and Montenegro, together with Bosnia, Herzegovina, Dalmatia, and Eastern Istria from Austria, and Croatia, Slavonia, and parts of the Backa and Banat regions from Hungary. (3) Poland, declared independent on November 5, 1916, as at present constituted consists of (a) the whole of Russian Poland; (b) part of Galicia from Austria; and (c) those portions of Posen, West Prussia, Silesia, and East Prussia already enumerated under the Treaty of Versailles. The eastern frontier of Poland as shown on the map is purely provisional. No terms have as yet been agreed upon between the Poles and the Bolshevik Russians.

Russia, in fact, is at present the one region in which no boundaries can be drawn, and concerning which few statements can be made. When the unity of the Tsardom was shattered in 1917 some twenty separate republics were proclaimed in different parts of the vast Russian Empire. Of these Poland (as already noted) and Finland seem definitely to have made good. Others, such as the Baltic States of Esthonia, Livonia, Courland, and Lithuania, appear likely in some form to survive. Others again, for example the republic of North Russia and the Don republic of South Russia, have been submerged by the Bolshevik flood. Concerning the rest, and in particular the important republic of Ukraina, at the time of writing all is doubt. In the circumstances it has been found impossible to do more than indicate roughly the main political divisions along the fringe of Russia in Europe.

Postscript.—The treaty with Hungary was signed on June 4, 1920; that with Turkey on August 10, 1920. By the latter treaty Turkey in Europe is cut back to the Chatalja line, Eastern Thrace going to Greece. The coast regions of the Dardanelles, the Sea of Marmora, and the Bosphorus are placed under the control of a "Commission of the Straits" appointed by the League of Nations.



INDEX TO MAPS

N.B.—In the following Index each place-name is entered once only, even though it occurs in several maps throughout the Atlas. Students who locate the place in the map indicated will have no difficulty in finding it in the others where it appears.

MAP			MAP			MAP				
Abbeville	II	B1	Arles	II	D5	Bechuanaland	Pro-	
Aberdeen	XI	B2	Armenia	XI	G3	tectorate	IX B6
Abo	XI	E1	Arno, River	VII	C3	Beira	IX H6, 7
Abruzzi	VII	D3	Arras	II	C1	Belfast	XI B2
Abyssinia	IX	H4	Arta	VIII	F4	Belfort	XI C3
Acera	IX	DE4	Artois	II	C1	Belgian Congo	IX G5
Adda, River	VII	B2	Aruwimi, River	IX	G4	Belgium	V AB2
Aden	IX	I3	Asia Minor	XI	EF4	Belgrade	VIII F2
Aden, Gulf of	IX	IK3	Aspromonte	VII	E5	Benevento	VII E4
Adis Ababa	IX	H4	Assuan	IX	H2	Benguela	IX F6
Adour, River	XI	B3	Astrakhan	XI	G3	Benue, River	IX E4
Adrianople	VIII	G3	Atbara, River	IX	H3	Berber	IX H3
Adriatic Sea	XI	D3	Ath	II	C1	Berbera	IX I3
Aegean Sea	VIII	G4	Athens	VIII	F1	Bergamo	VII B2
Africa, 1815-1914	IX	—	Atlantic Ocean	XI	A2, 3	Bergen	XI C1
Agram	VI	BC3	Augsburg	V	C2	Bergues	II C1
Agulhas, Cape	IX	G8	Austria, 1815-1914	VI	—	Berlin	IV E2
Aire (France)	II	C1	Austria, 1920	XI	D3	Bern	V B3
Aisne, River	XI	B3	Austria, Lower	VI	BC2	Besançon	II E3
Aix-la-Chapelle	IV	C3	Austria, Upper	VI	B2	Bessarabia	VIII CD2
Ajaccio	XI	C3	Avesnes	II	C1	Beuthen	IV H3
Aland Islands	XI	DE1	Avignon	II	D5	Einche	II D1
Albania	VIII	EF3	Azerbaijan	XI	G3	Biscay, Bay of	XI B3
Albert, Lake	IX	G4, 5	Azov, Sea of	XI	F3	Black Russia	III DE2
Alabara Islands	IX	I5					Black Sea	XI F3
Alessandria	VII	B2	Baden	IX	C2	Blomfontein	IX C7
Alexandria	IX	G1	Bagirmi	V	F3	Blue Nile	IX H3
Algeria	IX	E1	Bahr-el-Ghazal	IX	G4	Bohemia	VI B2
Algiers	IX	E1	Baku	XI	G3	Bologna	VII C2
Algoa Bay	IX	B8	Balatun, Lake	VI	C2	Boma	IX F5
Alma, River	I	F2	Baleatic Islands	XI	C3, 4	Bonn	II E1
Alsace	II	E2	Balkan Peninsula,			Bordeaux	XI B3
Alsace-Lorraine	V	B2	1815-1914	VIII	—	Bormio	VII C1
Amiens	II	C2	Baltic Sea	XI	DE2	Bornholm, Island	IX D2
Amirante Islands	IX	K5	Banana	IX	F5	Bornu	XI F3
Amsterdam	V	B1	Bangweolo, Lake	IX	G6	Bosnia	IX C3
Ancona	VII	D3	Bar, Duchy of	II	D2	Bosphorus	VIII H3
Andorra	XI	C3	Barcelona	XI	C3	Bothnia, Gulf of	XI D1
Anglo-Egyptian Sudan	IX	GH3	Barcelonette	II	E4	Bouillon	II D2
Angola	IX	F6	Bari	VII	F4	Boulogne	II B1
Angora	XI	F4	Bar-le-Duc	II	D2	Bourg	II D3
Angra Pequena	IX	F7	Basel	V	B3	Bozen	VI A2
Anhalt	V	CD2	Basilicata	VII	EF4	Braila	VIII G2
Annobon, Island	IX	E5	Basuto Land	IX	C7	Brandenburg	IV EF2
Ansbach	IV	D4	Bathurst (Gambia)	IX	C3	Brasov	VI E3
Antananarivo	IX	I6	Batum	XI	G3	Breisach, Alt	II B2
Antwerp	V	B2	Bavaria	V	C2	Bremen	V C1
Apulia	VII	EF4	Bayonne	XI	B3	Brescia	VII C2
Arad	VI	D2	Bayreuth	IV	D3, 4	Breslau	IV G3
Aras, River	XI	G4	Bechuanaland, British	IX	B6	Bresse	II D3

HISTORICAL ATLAS OF EUROPE

MAP			MAP			MAP		
Brest	XI	B3	Charlemont	II	D1	Don, River	XI	G3
Brest Litovsk	XI	E2	Charleroi	II	D1	Donetz, River	XI	F3
Brindisi	VII	H4	Chatalja	VIII	H3	Dongola	IX	H3
British East Africa	IX	G4	Château Dauphin	II	E4	Donai	II	C1
British Islands	I	B1	Cherbourg	XI	B3	Doubs, River	II	D3
British Somaliland	IX	I4	Christiania	XI	CD1	Douro, River	XI	B3
Bromberg	XI	D2	Clermont-en-Argonne	II	D2	Dover	XI	C2
Bruges	II	C1	Cleves	IV	B3	Dover, Strait of	XI	C2
Briinn	VI	C2	Coast Land (Austria)	VI	B2, 3	Drave, River	VI	C2
Brunswick	V	C1	Coblentz	IV	B3	Dresden	V	D2
Brussels	V	B2	Colesberg	IX	B7	Drina, River	VI	C3
Bucharest	VIII	G2	Colmar	II	E2	Dublin	XI	B2
Budapest	VI	C2	Cologne	IV	B3	Dundee	XI	B2
Budweis	VI	B2	Como	VII	B2	Dunkirk	II	C1
Buca	IX	E4	Comoro Islands	IX	I6	Durazzo	VIII	F3
Bug, River (Poland)	XI	E2	Condé	II	C1	Durban	IX	C7
Bug, River (South Russia)	XI	F3	Congo, River	IX	G4	Düsseldorf	IV	B3
Bugey	II	D4	Congo Free State	IX	G5	Dvina, River	XI	E2
Bukovina	VI	F2	Constance, Lake	VI	A2	Dvinsk	XI	E2
Bulawayo	IX	G7	Constantinople	VIII	H3			
Bulgaria, 1878-1914	VIII	FG3	Constantza	VIII	H2	Eastern Roumelia	VIII	G3
Bulgaria, 1920	XI	E3	Comassie	IX	D4	East London	IX	C7
Burgas	VIII	GH3	Copenhagen	XI	D2	East Prussia	IV	H12
Bütow	IV	G1	Cordova	XI	B4	Ebro, River	XI	B3
			Corfu	VIII	E4	Edinburgh	XI	B2
Cabinda	IX	F5	Corinth	VII	F4	Egypt	IX	G2
Cadiz	XI	B4	Cork	XI	B2	Eichsfeld	IV	D3
Cagliari	VII	B5	Cornigliano	VII	B2	Eider, River	IV	C1
Cairo	IX	GH2	Correggio	VII	C2	Ekaterinodar	XI	F3
Calabria	VII	F5	Corsica	XI	C3	Ekaterinoslav	XI	F3
Calais	XI	C2	Corunna	XI	B3	Elba, Island	VII	C3
Calatafimi	VII	D6	Cottbus	IV	F3	Elbe, River	V	C1
Cambrai	II	C1	Courland	III	C1	Ems	IV	B3
Cameroon	IX	F1	Courtrai	II	C1	Ems, River	V	B1
Cammin	IV	FG1	Cracow (Republic of)	VI	C1	England	XI	B2
Canary Islands	IX	C2	Craiova	VIII	F2	English Channel	XI	B2, 3
Candia	VIII	G5	Crete	I	E3	Enos	VIII	G3
Canea	VIII	G5	Crimea	XI	F3	Erfurt	IV	D3
Cape Coast Castle	IX	D4	Croatia-Slavonia	VI	BC3	Eritrea	IX	H13
Cape of Good Hope (Cape Colony)	IX	AC7	Custoza	VII	C2	Ermeland	IV	H11
Cape Town	IX	A7	Cuxhaven	IV	C2	Eryx, Mt.	VII	D5
Cape Verde Islands	IX	B3	Cyprus	I	F3	Esbjerg	XI	C2
Capitinata	VII	E4	Czecho-Slovakia	XI	DE3	Esthonia	XI	E2
Capraera, Island	VII	B4	Czernovitz	VI	E2	Eszék	VI	C3
Capua	VII	E4				Esztergom	VI	C2
Caréassonne	II	C5	Dago, Island	XI	E2	Etna, Mt.	VII	E6
Carinthia	VI	B2	Dahomey	IX	E4	Euboea	VIII	FG4
Carniola	VI	B3	Dalmatia	VI	BC3	Europe, 1815-1914	I	—
Carpathian Russia	XI	E3	Damascus	I	F3	Europe, 1920	XI	—
Carpi	VII	C2	Damvillers	II	D2	Exilles	II	E4
Carthage	XI	B4	Danube, River	XI	DE3			
Casale	VII	B2	Danzig	IV	H1	Falmouth	XI	B2
Caserta	VII	E4	Danzig, Free City of	XI	D2	Falster, Island	IV	E1
Caspian Sea	XI	GH3	Danzig, Republic of	II	C2	Fashoda	IX	H3
Cassel (Flanders)	II	C1	Dardanelles	VIII	G3	Fehmarn, Island	IV	D1
Cassel (Prussia)	IV	C3	Dar-es-Salaam	IX	I5	Fernando Po	IX	E4
Castelfidardo	VII	D3	Darfur	IX	G3	Ferrara	VII	C2
Castellammare	VII	E4	Darmstadt	V	C2	Fez	IX	D1
Catania	VII	E6	Dauphiné	II	DE4	Finland	XI	E1
Cattaro	VI	C3	Debrecen	VI	D2	Finland, Gulf of	XI	E2
Caucasia	XI	G3	Dedeagatch	VIII	G3	Fiume	VI	B3
Cavallasca	VII	B2	Delagoa Bay	IX	D6	Flanders	II	C1
Cefali	VII	E5	Delgado, Cape	IX	I6	Flensburg	XI	C2
Cettinje	VIII	E3	Denmark, 1815-1866	I	CD1	Florence	VII	C3
Ceuta	IX	D1	Denmark, 1920	XI	CD2	Forli	VII	CD2
Chad, Lake	IX	F3	Densna, River	XI	F2	Forth, Firth of	XI	B2
Chälön	II	D3	Dibra	VIII	F3	France, E. Frontier of, 1598-1871	II	—
Chälöns	II	D2	Dijon	II	D3	France, 1815-1914	I	—
Channel Islands	XI	B3	Dnieper, River	XI	F2, 3	France, 1920	XI	—
			Dniester, River	XI	E3	Franché Comté	II	DE3
			Dobruja	VIII	H2, 3			

INDEX TO MAPS

Frankfort-on-Main	MAP	IV	C3	Hagenau	MAP	II	E2	Kolozsvár	MAP	VI	D2
Frankfort-on-Oder	IV	F2		Hamburg	V	C1		Komárom	VI	C2	
Freetown	IX	C4		Hanover	IV	BD2		Konia	XI	F4	
Freiburg	II	E3		Harwich	XI	C2		Königgrätz	VI	B1	
French Equatorial				Hebrides	XI	B2		Königsberg	IV	11	
Africa	IX	F3, 4		Heligoland	V	B1		Kordofan	IX	GH3	
French Somaliland	IX	I3		Helsingfors	XI	E1		Kovno	XI	E2	
French West Africa	IX	CF3		Hermannstadt	VI	E3		Kremsier	VI	C2	
Friedland	IV	11		Hernád, River	VI	D2		Kronstadt (Russia)	XI	E1	
Friesland	IV	B2		Herzegovina	VI	C3		Kronstadt (Transyl-			
Frio, Cape	IX	F6		Hesse	V	C2		vania)	VI	E3	
Fulda	IV	C3		Hesse-Cassel	IV	C3		Krossen	IV	F2	
Fünen, Island	IV	D1		Hesse-Nassau	IV	C3		Kuban, River	XI	F3	
Fünfkirchen	VI	C2		Hildesheim	IV	C2		Kulm	IV	H2	
Furnes	II	C1		Hohenzollern	IV	C4		Kulmerland	IV	H2	
				Holland	V	B1, 2		Kura, River	XI	C3	
Gabun	IX	F5		Holyhead	XI	B2					
Gaeta	VII	D4		Hull	XI	B2		Laaland, Island	IV	D1	
Galatz	VIII	GH2		Hungary, 1815-1914	VI	CE2		Ladoga, Lake	XI	F1	
Galicia	VI	DE2		Hungary, 1920	XI	DE3		Ladysmith	IX	C7	
Galicia, New	III	C3						Lagos	IX	E4	
Gallipoli	VIII	G3		Illyrian Provinces	II	C2, 3		Laibach	VI	B2	
Galway	XI	B2		Inn, River	VI	B2		Landau	II	F2	
Gambia	IX	C3		Innsbruck	VI	A2		Landrecies	II	C1	
Garda, Lake	VI	A3		Ionian Islands	VIII	AB4		Langeland, Island	IV	D1	
Garonne, River	XI	BC3		Ireland	XI	B2		Langres	II	D3	
Geneva	XI	C3		Isar, River	VI	AB2		Larissa	VIII	F4	
Geneva, Lake	II	E3		Isaszeg	VI	C2		Lauenburg, Duchy of	IV	D2	
Genoa	VII	B2		Istria	VI	B3		Lauenburg (Pomerania)	IV	G1	
Georgia	XI	G3		Italian Somaliland	IX	I4		Lausanne	VII	A1	
German Confederation, 1815-1866	V	—		Italy, 1815-1914	VII	—		Lebus	IV	F2	
German Confederation, North, 1866-1871	V	—		Italy, Napoleon's King-	II	C3		Leghorn	VII	C3	
German East Africa	IX	H5		dom of	II	C3		Legnago	VII	C2	
German S.W. Africa	IX	F7		Iviza, Island	XI	C4		Leipzig	V	D2	
Gex	II	DE3		Ivory Coast	IX	D4		Lemberg	VI	E2	
Ghent	II	C1						Lepanto	VIII	F4	
Gibraltar	XI	B4		Jägerndorf	IV	G3		Leuthen	IV	G3	
Gimborne	IV	B3		Jassy	VIII	G2		Libau	XI	E2	
Girgenti	VII	D6		Johannesburg	IX	C6		Liberia	IX	CD4	
Glasgow	XI	B2		Juba, River	IX	I4		Libreville	IX	EF4	
Glatz	VI	C1		Jutland	XI	C2		Libyan Desert	IX	G2	
Gnessen	III	B2						Lichtenberg	IV	B4	
Gold Coast	IX	D4		Kaffraria	IX	C7		Liechtenstein	VI	A2	
Gollnow	IV	F2		Kama, River	XI	H2		Liège	V	B2	
Good Hope, Cape of	IX	A7		Kamerun. See Cameroon				Liguria	VII	B2	
Görlitz	IV	F3		Kápolna	VI	D2		Lille	II	C1	
Gothenburg	XI	D2		Kars	IX	F5		Limerick	XI	B2	
Gothland, Island	XI	D2		Kasai, River	I	G2		Limoges	XI	C3	
Göttingen	IV	CD3		Kaschau	VI	D2		Limpopo, River	IX	C5	
Gran	VI	C2		Kassala	IX	H3		Limpurg	IV	C4	
Gravelines	II	C1		Kattegat	XI	D2		Lingen	IV	B2	
Graz	VI	B2		Kavala	VIII	G3		Linz	VI	B2	
Great Fish River	IX	C7		Kaysersberg	II	E2		Lipari Islands	VII	E5	
Great Kei River	IX	C7		Kazan	XI	G2		Lippe	V	C1, 2	
Greece, 1830-1878	VIII	B4		Kecskemét	VI	C2		Lisbon	XI	B4	
Greece, 1878-1914	VIII	F2, 3		Kehl	XI	C3		Lithuania	III	D2	
Greece, 1920	XI	E3, 4		Kenia, Mt.	IX	H5		Little Russia	XI	EF3	
Grenoble	II	D4		Kharkov	XI	F2, 3		Liverpool	XI	B2	
Grodno	XI	E2		Khartum	IX	H3		Livonia	XI	E2	
Grosseto	VII	C3		Kherson	XI	F3		Loanda	IX	F5	
Grosswardein	VI	D2		Kiel	IV	D1		Loango	IX	F5	
Guadalquivir, River	XI	B4		Kiel Canal	IV	C1		Lodi	VII	B2	
Guadiana, River	XI	B4		Kiev	XI	F2		Lodz	III	B3	
Guardafui, Cape	IX	K3		Kilimanjaro, Mt.	IX	H5		Loire, River	VI	B3	
Guastalla	VII	C2		Kilwa	IX	I5		Lombardy	VII	B2	
Guinea, Gulf of	IX	DE4		Kimberley	IX	B6		London	XI	B2	
Guinea (Portuguese)	IX	C3		Kishinev	XI	E3		Longwy	II	D2	
Guinea (Spanish)	IX	E4		Kismayu	IX	I5		Lorraine, Duchy of	II	E2	
Győr	VI	C2		Klagenfurt	VI	B2		Lourenço Marques	IX	D6	
				Klausenburg	VI	D2		Lübeck	V	C1	
				Kolin	IV	F3		Lublin	III	C3	

HISTORICAL ATLAS OF EUROPE

Lucca	MAP VII	C3	Monaco	MAP XI	C3	Nuremberg	MAP V	C2
Lüderitz Bay	IX	F7	Monastir	VIII	F3	Nyasa, Lake	IX	H6
Lüneburg	IV	D2	Monrovia	IX	C4	Nyasaland Protectorate	IX	H6
Lusatia, Lower	IV	F3	Montbéliard	II	E3			
Lusatia, Upper	IV	F3	Mont Cenis Pass	VII	A2			
Lützen	IV	E3	Montenegro, 1815–1878	VIII	A3	Ober Ehnheim	II	E2
Luxemburg	V	B2	1878			Ödenburg	VI	C2
Lyons	XI	C3	Montenegro, 1878–1914	VIII	EF3	Oder, River	V	D1
						Odessa	XI	F3
Macedonia	VIII	BC3	Montmédy	II	D2	Oise, River	XI	C3
Macerata	VII	D3	Montpellier	II	C5	Oka, River	XI	G2
Mácon	II	D3	Mór	VI	C2	Okhrida	VIII	F3
Madagascar	IX	I6, 7	Moravia	VI	C2	Öland, Island	XI	D2
Madeira Islands	IX	C1	Moray Firth	XI	B2	Old Calabar	IX	E4
Madrid	XI	B3	Morocco	IX	D1	Oldenburg	V	C1
Mafeking	IX	B6	Mortara	VII	B2	Old Mark (Brandenburg)	IV	D2
Magdala	IX	H3	Moscow	XI	F2	Olmutz	VI	C2
Magdeburg	IV	D2	Moselle, River	V	B2	Omdurman	IX	H3
Magenta	VII	B2	Mossamedes	IX	F6	Onega, Lake	XI	F1
Main, River	V	C2	Mossel Bay	IX	B7	Oporto	XI	B3
Mainz	V	C2	Mostar	VI	C3	Orange (France)	II	D4
Majorca, Island	XI	C4	Mozambique	IX	J6	Orange-Free State	IX	C6
Majuba Hill	IX	C6	Mülhausen	II	E3	Orange River	IX	B6
Malaga	XI	B4	Munich	V	C2	Orbetello	VII	C3
Malmö	XI	D2	Münster (Alsace)	II	E2	Orenburg	XI	H2
Malta	XI	D4	Münster (Westphalia)	IV	B3	Orkney Islands	XI	B2
Man, I. of	XI	B2				Orleans	XI	C3
Man-feld	IV	D3	Nagyvárad	VI	D2	Orsova	VI	D3
Mantua	VII	C2	Nairobi	IX	H5	Orvieto	VII	D3
Marburg	IV	C3	Namaqua Land (Little)	IX	A7	Oscl, Island	XI	E2
March, River	VI	C2	Namur	II	D1	Osiek	VI	C3
Marches, The (Papal States)	VII	D3	Nancy	II	E2	Osnabrück	IV	C2
Maremma	VII	C3	Nantes	XI	B3	Otranto	VII	FG4
Maria Theresiopol	VI	C3	Naples	VII	E4	Oudenarde	II	C1
Marienburg	II	D1	Naples, Kingdom of, 1810	II	C3			
Mark, County of	IV	B3	Narbonne	II	C5	Paderborn	IV	C3
Marmora, Sea of	VIII	GH3	Narva	XI	E2	Padua	VII	C2
Marne, River	XI	C3	Nassau	IV	C3	Palatinate (Bavarian)	V	BC2
Marsala	VII	D6	Natal	IX	C7	Palermo	VII	D5
Marseilles	XI	C3	Navarino	VIII	B4	Palma	VII	D4
Massawa	IX	J3	Naze, The (Norway)	XI	C2	Papal States. See States of the Church		
Mauberge	II	C1	Netherlands, 1815–1831	V	Bl, 2	Paris	XI	C3
Mauritius	IX	K7	Netze District	IV	G2	Parma	VII	BC2
Mecca	IX	J2	Netze, River	IV	G2	Passau	VI	B2
Mecklenburg-Schwerin	V	C1	Neuburg	V	B3	Patras	VIII	F4
Mecklenburg-Strelitz	V	D1	Neusatz	VI	C3	Pécs	VI	C2
Mediterranean Sea	XI	CF4	Neusohl	VI	C2	Peipus, Lake	XI	E2
Melitopol	XI	F3	Nevers	XI	C3	Pellegrino, Mt.	VII	D5
Memel	IV	II	Newcastle	XI	B2	Pernau	XI	E2
Memel, River	IV	II	New East Prussia	IV	IK2	Perpignan	II	C5
Merseburg	IV	E3	New Mark (Brandenburg)	IV	F2	Persia	XI	G4
Messina	VII	E5				Perugia	VII	D3
Metz	II	E2	New Silesia	IV	H3	Pesaro	VII	D3
Meuse, River	V	B2	Nice	II	E5	Pescara	VII	E3
Middle Mark (Brandenburg)	IV	E2	Niemén, River	III	D2	Peschiera	VII	C2
Midia	VIII	H3	Nigeria	IX	EF3	Petrograd	XI	F2
Milan	VII	B2	Niger, River	IX	E3	Philippeville	II	D1
Milazzo	VII	E5	Nikopol	XI	F3	Philippopolis	VIII	G3
Minden	IV	C2	Nile, River	IX	H2	Philippsburg	II	F2
Minorea, Island	XI	C3, 4	Nimes	II	D5	Piacenza	VII	B2
Minsk	III	D2	Nish	VIII	F3	Piedmont	VII	AB2
Modena	VII	C2	Nizhni Novgorod	XI	G2	Pietermaritzburg	IX	C7
Moen, Island	IV	E1	North Sea	XI	C2	Pilsen	VI	B2
Moero, Lake	IX	G5	Norway	XI	Cl, 2	Pinerolo	II	E4
Mogadisho	IX	I4	Novara	VII	B2	Pinsk	XI	E2
Moldau, River	VI	B2	Novi	VII	B2	Pisa	VII	C3
Moldavia	VIII	C2	Novibazar	VIII	F3	Pizzo	VII	F5
Molise	VII	E4	Novi Sad	VI	C3	Plevna	VIII	C3
Mombasa	IX	I5	Novocherkassk	XI	F3	Plymouth	XI	B2
			Nubian Desert	IX	H2			

INDEX TO MAPS

Po, River	MAP VII	AD2
Podlesia	III	D2, 3
Podolia	III	DE3
Pola	VI	B3
Poland, 1772-1914	III	—
Poland (Great)	III	B2, 3
Poland (Little)	III	C2, 3
Poland, Kingdom of, 1815-1831	I	DE1
Poland, 1920	XI	DE2
Pomerania	IV	EG1
Pontecorvo	VII	D4
Pontremoli	VII	B2
Port Elizabeth	IX	B7
Port Nolloth	IX	F7
Porto Santo Stefano	VII	C3
Port Said	IX	H1
Portugal	XI	B2, 3
Portuguese East Africa	H6, 7	—
Portuguese Guinea	IX	C3
Posen	IV	G2
Potsdam	IV	E2
Prague	VI	B1
Pregel, River	V	F1
Pressburg	VI	C2
Pretoria	IX	C6
Preveza	VIII	F4
Priegnitz	IV	DE2
Principato	VII	E4
Pripet, River	XI	E2
Provence	II	DE5
Prussia, Duchy of	IV	IK1, 2
Prussia, Kingdom of	IV	—
Prussia, New East	III	C2
Pruth, River	VIII	GH2
Przemysl	VI	D2
Pskov	XI	E2
Raab	VI	C2
Ragusa	VI	C3
Ratibor	XI	D2
Ravenna	VII	D2
Red Russia	III	CD3
Red Sea	IX	HI2
Regensburg	V	D2
Reggio	VII	E5
Reichenberg	VI	B1
Reims	XI	C3
Réunion, Island	IX	K7
Reuss	V	CD2
Reval	XI	E2
Rhine, River	V	B2
Rhine, Confederation of the	II	BC2
Rhine Province	IV	B3, 4
Rhodes	VIII	H4
Rhodesia	IX	G6
Rhone, River	II	D4
Riga	XI	E2
Riga, Gulf of	XI	E2
Rimini	VII	D2
Rio de Oro	IX	C2
Rochefort	XI	B3
Rodosto	VIII	C3
Rodriguez, Island	IX	K6
Romagna	VII	CD2
Rome	VII	D4
Rosheim	II	E2
Rosbach	IV	D3
Rostov	XI	F3
Rouen	XI	C3

Roumania, 1878-1914	MAP VIII	FH2
Roumania, 1920	XI	E3
Roussillon	II	C5
Rovigo	VII	C2
Rovno	XI	E2
Rovnuma, River	IX	H6
Rudolf, Lake	IX	H4
Rügen, Island	IV	E1
Ruppin	IV	E2
Russia, 1815-1914	I	EG1, 2
Russia, 1920	XI	EH2
Rustchuk	VIII	G3
Saar Basin	XI	C3
Saaronis	II	E2
Sadowa	VI	B1
Sahara	IX	CG2
St. Etienne	XI	C3
St. Helena Bay	IX	A7
St. Louis (Senegal)	IX	C3
St. Omer	II	C1
St. Petersburg	I	F1
St. Pol	II	C1
St. Thomas, Island	IX	E4
Salem	VII	D6
Salerno	VII	E4
Salisbury (Rhodesia)	IX	H6
Salm	II	E2
Salonica	VIII	F3
Saluzzo	II	E4
Salzburg	VI	B2
Samara	XI	H2
Samogitia	III	C2
Samos, Island	VIII	G4
Samos, River	VI	D2
San Marino	VII	D3
San Stefano, Boundaries proposed by	VIII	DE4
Treaty of	XI	B3
Santander	II	D3
Saône, River	VII	E4
Sapri	XI	B3
Saragossa	VI	C3
Sarajevo	XI	G2
Saratov	VII	B4
Sardinia, Island	VII	B2, 5
Sardinia, Kingdom of	VI	C3
Save, River	II	E4
Savoy	IV	D2, 3
Saxony (Prussia)	V	D2
Saxony, Kingdom of	XI	B2
Scapa Flow	V	C1
Schaumburg-Lippe	IV	C1
Schleswig	IV	C1
Schleswig-Holstein	II	E2
Schlettstadt	IV	D3
Schleusingen	IV	D3
Schmalkalden	V	C2
Schwarzburg - Rudolstadt	V	C2
Schwarzburg-Sondershausen	V	C2
Schwechat	IV	F2
Schwiebus	IV	F2
Scilly Islands	XI	B3
Scotland	XI	B2
Scutari	VIII	E3
Sebastopol	XI	F3
Sedan	II	D2
Seine, River	XI	C3
Senegal	IX	C3

Senegal, River	MAP IX	C3
Serbia, 1817	VIII	B2, 3
Serbia, 1878-1914	VIII	F2, 3
Seville	XI	B4
Seychelles, Islands	IX	K5
Shari, River	IX	F4
Shebeli, River	IX	I4
Shetland Islands	XI	B1
Shipka Pass	VIII	C3
Sibu	VI	E3
Sicilies, Kingdom of the Two	VII	DF3, 6
Sicily, Island	VII	DE6
Sierra Leone	IX	C4
Sigmaringen	IV	C4
Silesia (Austrian)	VI	C1, 2
Silesia (Prussian)	IV	FH3
Silistria	VIII	G2, 3
Simferopol	XI	F3
Sinope	XI	F3
Skager Rack	XI	C2
Smolensk	XI	F2
Smyrna	VIII	G4
Socotra, Island	IX	K3
Sofia	VIII	F3
Sokoto	IX	E3
Solferino	VII	C2
Somaliland, British	IX	I4
Somaliland, French	IX	I3
Somaliland, Italian	IX	I4
Somme, River	II	BC1
Sopron	VI	C2
Southampton	XI	B2
South Prussia	IV	GH2
Spain	XI	B3
Spalato	VI	C3
Spandan	IV	E2
Spanish Guinea	IX	E4
Spezia	VII	B2
Spoleto	VII	D3
Stanley Falls	IX	G4, 5
States of the Church	VII	CD3
Stavanger	XI	C2
Stavropol	XI	G3
Stelvio Pass	VII	C1
Stenay	II	D2
Stettin	IV	F2
Stockholm	XI	D2
Stralsund	V	D1
Strassburg	V	B2
Stryj	VI	D2
Stuttgart	V	C2
Styria	VI	B2
Suakin	IX	H3
Sudan, Anglo-Egyptian	IX	GH3
Suez	IX	H1
Sundgau	II	E3
Swazi Land	IX	D6
Sweden	XI	D1, 2
Swinemünde	IV	F2
Switzerland	V	BC3
Syraouse	VII	E6
Syria	I	F3
Szabadka	VI	C2
Szeged	VI	D2
Szőlnok	VI	D2
Tagus, River	XI	B4
Tanaro, River	VII	A2
Tanganyika, Lake	IX	H5
Tangier	XI	B4

HISTORICAL ATLAS OF EUROPE

Taranto	MAP	VII	F4	Türkheim	MAP	II	E2	Vitebsk	MAP	III	E2
Tarnopol		VI	E2	Tuscany		VII	C3	Vladikavkaz		XI	G3
Tarnov		VI	D1	Tyrrhenian Sea		VII	CD4	Volga, River		XI	G3
Temesvár		VI	D3					Volhynia		III	D3
Terek, River		XI	G3	Ubangi, River		IX	F4	Volo		VIII	F4
Terra di Lavoro		VII	D4	Ufa		XI	H2	Volturno, River		VII	D4
Teschén		XI	D3	Uganda Protectorate		IX	H4	Vorarlberg		VI	A2
Thames, River		I	B1	Uji		IX	H5				
Theiss, River		VI	D2	Uker Mark (Branden- burg)		IV	E2	Wadai		IX	F3
Theodosia		XI	F3	Ukraine		XI	EG2	Wadi Halfa		IX	H2
Thionville		II	D2	Ulm		V	C2	Walachia		VIII	C2
Thorn		IV	H2	Umbria		VII	D3	Waldeck		V	C2
Thuringian States		V	C2	Union of South Africa		IX AD6.7		Wales		XI	B2
Tiber, River		VII	D4	Ural, River		XI	H2	Walish Bay		IX	F7
Tibesti		IX	F3	Urbino		VII	D3	Warsaw		III	C2
Ticino, River		VII	B2	Usedom, Island		IV	F1	Warsaw, Grand Duchy of		II	C2
Tiflis		XI	G3	Üsküb		VIII	F3	Warthe, River		IV	G2
Tilsit		IV	II					Waterford		XI	B2
Timbuktu		IX	D3	Vaal, River		IX	C6	Weissenburg		II	E2
Togoland		IX	E5	Vác		VI	C2	Welle, River		IX	G4
Tortona		VII	B2	Vág, River		VI	C2	Weser, River		V	C1
Toul		II	D2	Valence		II	D4	Westphalia		IV	B3
Toulon		XI	C3	Valencia		XI	B4	West Prussia		IV	GH2
Toulouse		XI	C3	Valenciennes		II	C1	Wetzlar		IV	C3
Tournai		II	C1	Valona		VIII	E3	White Nile		IX	H4
Transvaal		IX	C6	Vardar, River		VIII	F3	White Russia		XI	E2
Transylvania		VI	DE2	Varese		VII	B2	Windhoek		IX	F7
Trapani		VII	D5	Varna		VIII	H3	Wittenberg		IV	E3
Trebizond		XI	F3	Velletri		VII	D4	Wollin, Island		IV	F1
Trentino		XI	D3	Venetia		VII	CD2	Worms		IV	C2
Treves		II	E2	Venice		VII	D2	Württemberg		V	C2
Treviso		VII	D2	Vercelli		VII	B2				
Trient		VI	A2	Verdun		II	D2	Yarmouth		XI	C2
Trier (Treves)		IV	B4	Verona		VII	C2	Ypres		II	C1
Trieste		VI	B3	Viborg		XI	E1	Yugo-Slavia		XI	DE3
Trikkala		VIII	F4	Vicenza		VII	C2				
Tripoli		IX	F1	Victoria Falls		IX	G6	Zagreb		VI	BC3
Troyes		II	D2	Victoria Nyanza		IX	H5	Zambezi, River		IX	GH6
Tugela, River		IX	D7	Vidin		VIII	F2	Zanzibar Protectorate		IX	I5
Tula		XI	F2	Vienna		VI	C2	Zara		VI	B3
Tunis		IX	E1	Vienne		II	D4	Zealand, Island (Den- mark)		IV	D1
Turin		VII	A2	Vigo		XI	B3	Ziegenrück		IV	D3
Turkey (European). 1813-1878		VIII	BC3	Villafraanca		VII	C2	Zomba		IX	H6
Turkey (European). 1878-1914		VIII	GH3	Villagos		VI	D2	Zululand		IX	D6
Turkey (European). 1920		XI	E3	Vilna		III	D2	Zungeru		IX	E4
				Vistula, River		V	E1				

ERRATUM

In Map XI, Square D2, for Ratisbon read Ratibor.

BY PROFESSOR F. J. C. HEARNshaw

MAIN CURRENTS OF EUROPEAN HISTORY

1815-1915

With Maps. Crown 8vo. 7s. 6d. net.

SPECTATOR.—"A valuable and thoughtful volume."

NEW EUROPE.—"A very interesting panorama of Europe in the nineteenth century.

... Cannot fail to do an immense amount of good."

DAILY TELEGRAPH.—"Valuable and intensely interesting."

DAILY NEWS.—"Interesting and worth reading."

OUTLOOK.—"One of the best text-books on the subject that have been written."

AN OUTLINE SKETCH OF THE POLITICAL HISTORY OF EUROPE IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY

Crown 8vo. 3s. 6d. net.

GUARDIAN.—"A very serviceable and well-written work. . . . It is a wonderfully complete and well-arranged sketch, and the period which culminated in the Great War is summarised with great clearness and force."

EDUCATION.—"We cannot give this book higher praise than to say that we should like to see a class in every school given up to the study of modern political history and that this volume should be the text-book on which the class teaching should be based."

DEMOCRACY AT THE CROSSWAYS

A STUDY IN POLITICS AND HISTORY WITH SPECIAL
REFERENCE TO GREAT BRITAIN

8vo. 15s. net.

Sir SIDNEY LOW in the FORTNIGHTLY REVIEW.—"A very able and penetrating analysis of the dangers to which democracy is exposed."

G. P. GOOCH in the CONTEMPORARY REVIEW.—"Will impress every reader by its wide learning, its obvious power, and its clearness of statement."

OBSERVER.—"A really wise, helpful, and pleasurable book."

A FIRST BOOK OF ENGLISH HISTORY

Illustrated. Globe 8vo. Sewed, 2s.; Stiff Boards, 2s. 3d.

EDUCATION.—"The author has managed his material with sound judgment and skill, and woven his facts into a narrative that nowhere lacks interest and coherence. The book is excellently illustrated."

LONDON: MACMILLAN AND CO., LTD.

WALL ATLAS OF EUROPEAN HISTORY

THIS is an entirely new series of History Maps designed to show at a glance the chief political changes and national movements from the formation of the Roman Empire to the beginning of the Great War, 1914. Territorial changes are strongly marked in bold and attractive colouring. The physical features are so treated as not to interfere with the effectiveness of the maps from a historical point of view. Place names are given in characters consistent with their relative importance. The exceptionally bold and distinctive treatment renders these maps a most valuable adjunct to the teaching of history.

Size, 40 by 30 inches. Containing 24 large Scale Maps with numerous Insets.

Price **7s. 6d.** net each, on Cloth and Rollers, Varnished, or mounted on Cloth, to fold in sections, and eyeleted.

Any Six Selected Maps mounted as a Wall Atlas, on Cloth and fastened together on one Roller, with Metal Rims at foot of Maps to prevent curling, **£2 : 2s.**

The Complete Series of Twenty-four Maps made up into Four Wall Atlases and mounted as above, **£8 : 5s.**

LIST OF MAPS

MAP

1. The Formation of the Roman Empire.
2. The Roman Empire showing the Barbarian Inroads.
3. The Roman Empire showing the Teutonic Settlements, A.D. 476.
4. Europe in the Time of Charles the Great, A.D. 758-814.
5. Europe in the Time of Otto the Great, A.D. 962.
6. Europe in the Time of the Third Crusade, A.D. 1190.
7. Europe in A.D. 1360.
8. Europe at the Accession of Charles V., A.D. 1519.
9. Europe in A.D. 1648, after the Peace of Westphalia.
10. Central Europe in the Time of the French Revolution and Empire.
11. Europe, A.D. 1814-1863.

MAP

12. Europe, A.D. 1863-1897.
13. The Growth of Prussia, A.D. 1415-1914.
14. The Formation of the Modern German Empire, A.D. 1914.
15. Europe in the Time of Louis XIV., A.D. 1702.
16. Europe under Napoleon, A.D. 1810.
17. Commercial Map of the British Isles at the Close of the Middle Ages.
18. World. Age of Discoveries.
19. Switzerland. Showing the Growth of the Confederation.
20. The Russian Empire.
21. The Netherlands since their Union under Charles V., A.D. 1543.
22. Italy in A.D. 1859.
23. The Balkan Peninsula after the Treaty of Berlin, A.D. 1878.
24. Europe in A.D. 1914.

EDINBURGH: W. & A. K. JOHNSTON, LTD.



UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA LIBRARY
BERKELEY

Return to desk from which borrowed.
This book is DUE on the last date stamped below.

<p>1018</p> <p>Mar 1966</p> <p>72-116320</p> <p>APR 1963</p> <p>JUN 18 1963</p>	<p>REC'D LD JUN 24 71-6AN68</p>	
---	---------------------------------	--

U. C. BERKELEY LIBRARIES



C047909473

M278470

THE UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA LIBRARY

